

CURRENT HISTORY

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE of The New York Times

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MAY

UNITED STATES At War WITH GERMANY

[OFFICIAL—IN FULL]

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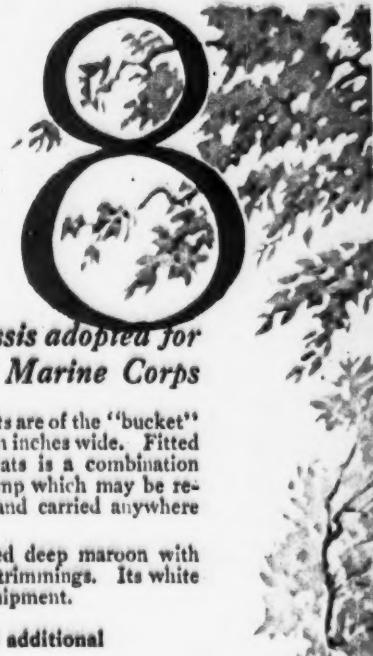
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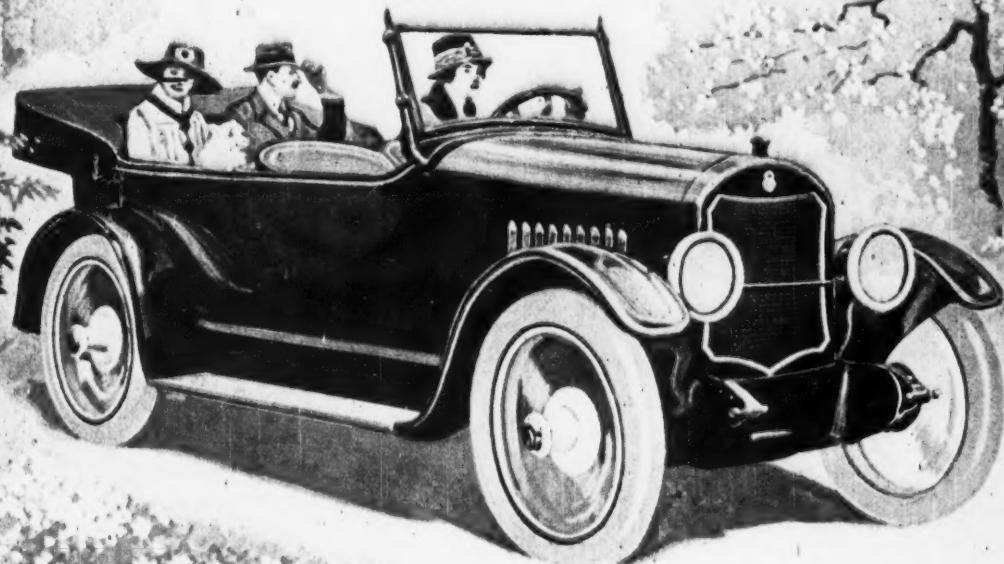
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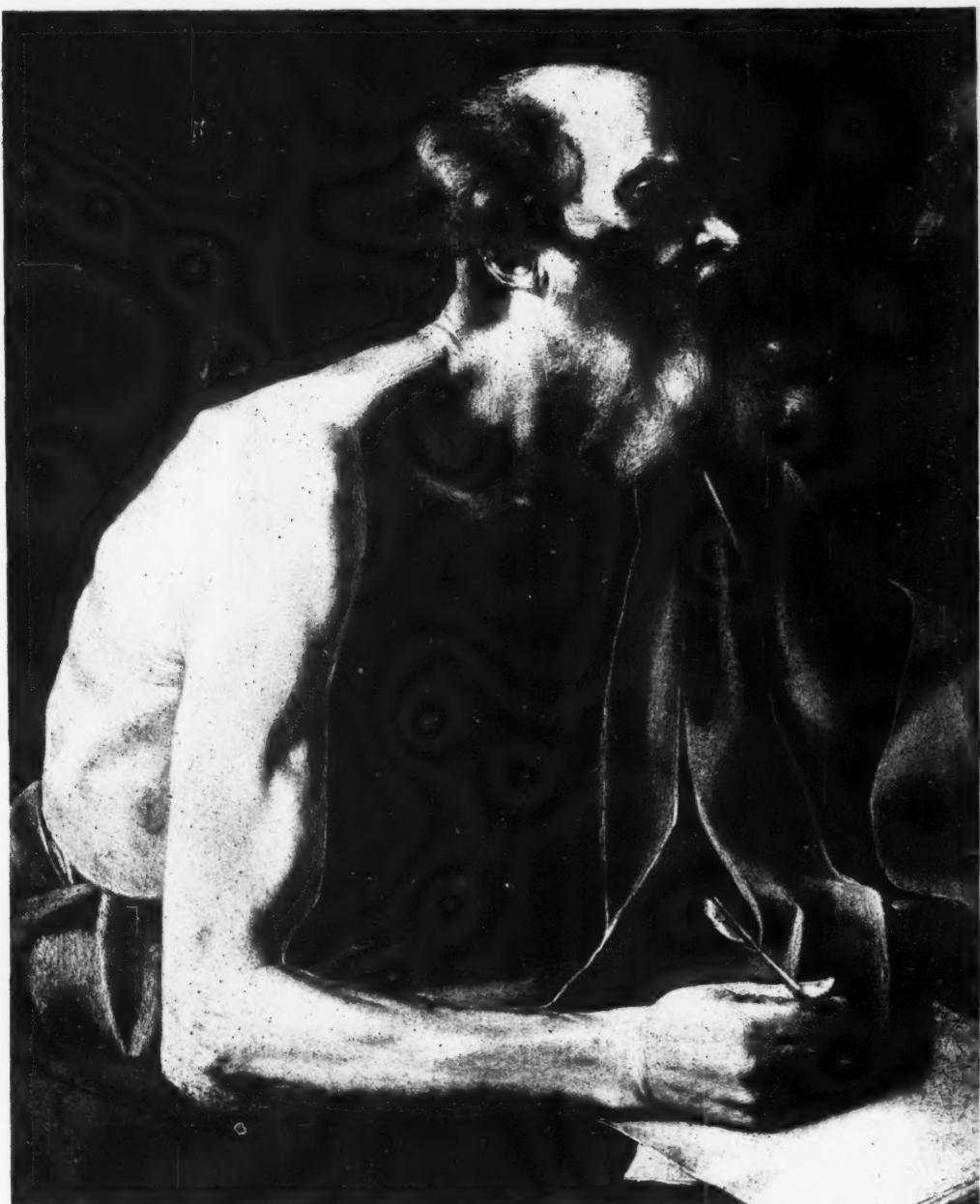
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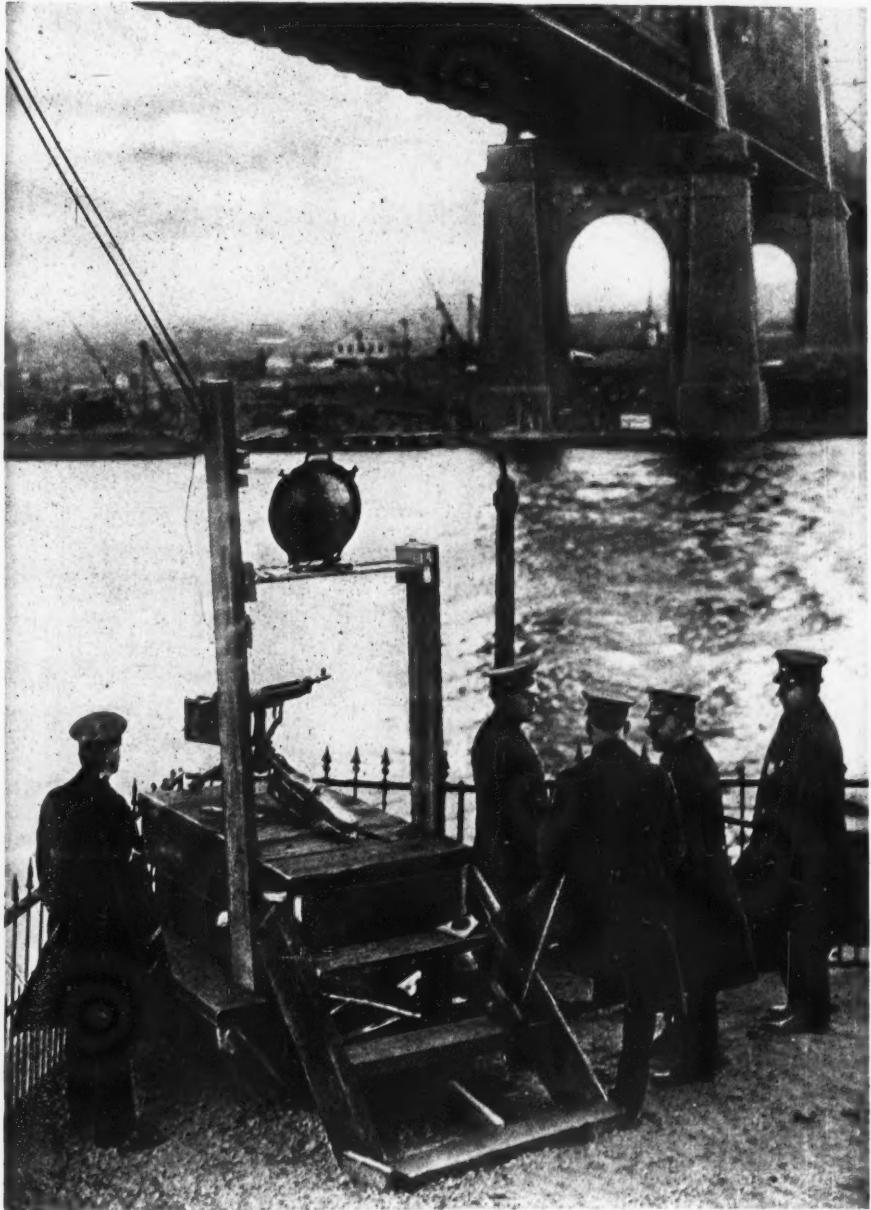
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THE DEAD CITY OF ARRAS



Ruins of the City Hall of Arras, the Shell-Blasted Town Near
Which the British Drive of April 9 Began

NEW YORK POLICE ON WAR DUTY



Guarding the Queensboro Bridge With a Rapid-Fire Gun,
Aided by a Powerful Searchlight for Use at Night

(Photo © American Press Assn.)

AMERICA'S DECLARATION OF WAR

S. J. Res. 1. (PUBLIC RESOLUTION...NO. 1...65th CONGRESS.)

APR 6 1917



Sixty-fifth Congress of the United States of America;

At the First Session,

Begin and held at the City of Washington on Monday, the second day of April, one thousand nine hundred and seventeen.

JOINT RESOLUTION

Declaring that a state of war exists between the Imperial German Government and the Government and the people of the United States and making provision to prosecute the same.

Whereas the Imperial German Government has committed repeated acts of war against the Government and the people of the United States of America: Therefore be it

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the state of war between the United States and the Imperial German Government which has thus been thrust upon the United States is hereby formally declared; and that the President be, and he is hereby, authorized and directed to employ the entire naval and military forces of the United States and the resources of the Government to carry on war against the Imperial German Government; and to bring the conflict to a successful termination all of the resources of the country are hereby pledged by the Congress of the United States.

Champ Clark,

Speaker of the House of Representatives.

T. R. Marshall

Vice President of the United States and
President of the Senate.

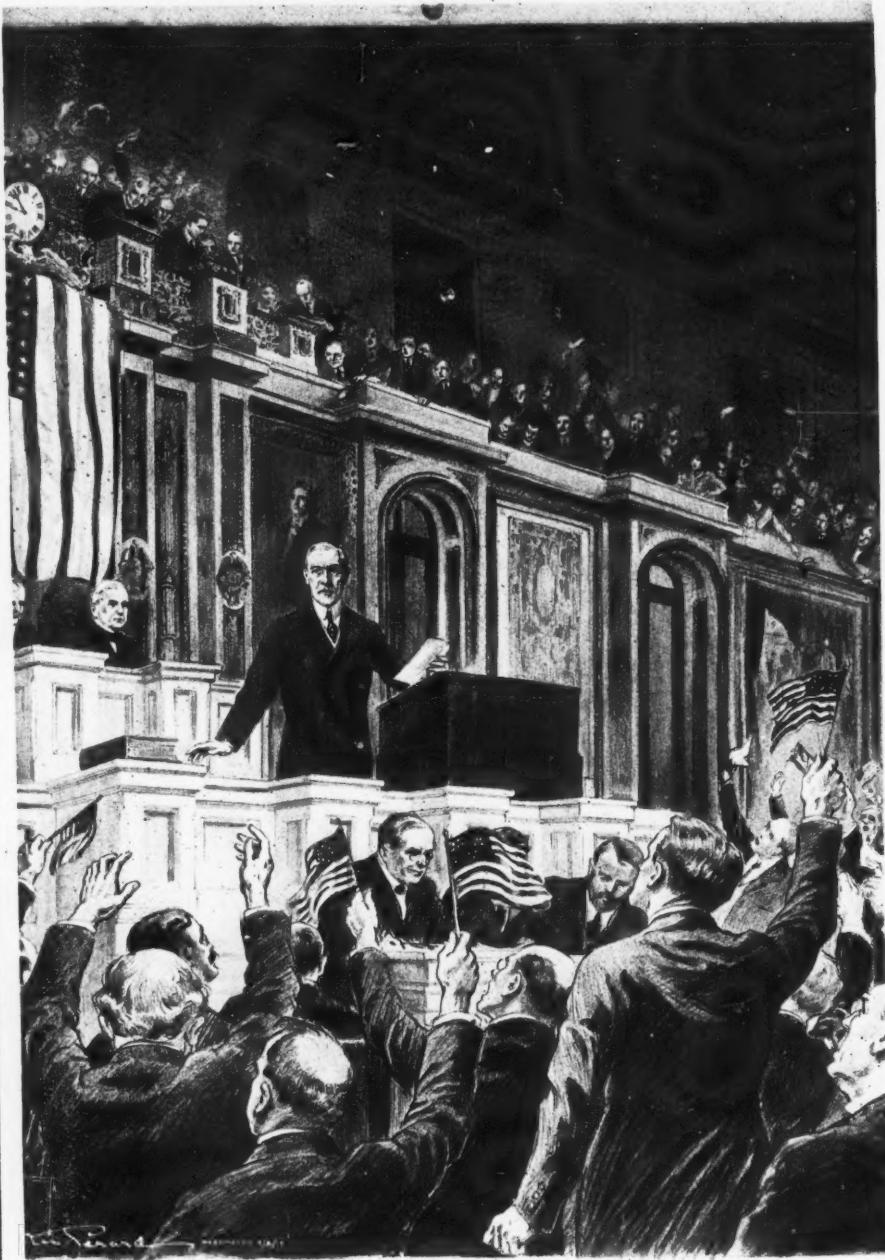
Approved April 6, 1917

Woodrow Wilson

Official Photograph of the Resolution Which, When Signed
by the President, Began Our War with Germany.

(Photo Harris & Ewing)

PRESIDENT DELIVERING HIS WAR MESSAGE



President Wilson Reading the Historic Address of April 2,
Which Led to a Formal Declaration of a State of War

(Drawn by Victor Perard. © 1917 by New York Times Co.)

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THE WAR MESSAGE

Delivered by President Woodrow Wilson Before
the United States Congress on April 2, 1917

Text of the address read by the President at 8:30 P. M., April 2, 1917, at the Joint Session of Congress, convened by special call at noon of that day.

Gentlemen of the Congress:

I HAVE called the Congress into extraordinary session because there are serious, very serious, choices of policy to be made, and made immediately, which it was neither right nor constitutionally permissible that I should assume the responsibility of making.

On the 3d of February last I officially laid before you the extraordinary announcement of the Imperial German Government that on and after the first day of February it was its purpose to put aside all restraints of law or of humanity and use its submarines to sink every vessel that sought to approach either the ports of Great Britain and Ireland or the western coasts of Europe or any of the ports controlled by the enemies of Germany within the Mediterranean. That had seemed to be the object of the German submarine warfare earlier in the war, but since April of last year the Imperial Government had somewhat restrained the commanders of its undersea craft, in conformity with its promise, then given to us, that passenger boats should not be sunk and that due warning would be given to all other vessels which its submarines might seek to destroy, when no resistance was offered or escape attempted, and care taken that their crews were given at least a fair chance to save their lives in their open boats. The precautions taken were meagre and haphazard enough, as was proved in distressing instance after instance in the progress of the cruel and unmanly business, but a certain degree of restraint was observed.

The new policy has swept every restriction aside. Vessels of every kind, whatever their flag, their character, their cargo, their destination, their errand, have been ruthlessly sent to the bottom without warning and without thought of help or mercy for those on board, the vessels of friendly neutrals along with those of belligerents. Even hospital ships and ships carrying relief to the sorely bereaved and stricken people of Belgium, though the latter were provided with safe conduct through the proscribed areas by the German Government itself and were distinguished by unmistakable marks of identity, have been sunk with the same reckless lack of compassion or of principle.

I was for a little while unable to believe that such things would in fact be done by any Government that had hitherto subscribed to humane practices of civilized nations. International law had its origin in the attempt to set up some law which would be respected and observed upon the seas, where no nation had right of dominion and where lay the free

highways of the world. By painful stage after stage has that law been built up, with meagre enough results, indeed, after all was accomplished that could be accomplished, but always with a clear view, at least, of what the heart and conscience of mankind demanded.

Ruthless Destruction of Life

This minimum of right the German Government has swept aside, under the plea of retaliation and necessity and because it had no weapons which it could use at sea except these, which it is impossible to employ, as it is employing them, without throwing to the wind all scruples of humanity or of respect for the understandings that were supposed to underlie the intercourse of the world.

I am not now thinking of the loss of property involved, immense and serious as that is, but only of the wanton and wholesale destruction of the lives of noncombatants, men, women, and children, engaged in pursuits which have always, even in the darkest periods of modern history, been deemed innocent and legitimate. Property can be paid for; the lives of peaceful and innocent people cannot be. The present German submarine warfare against commerce is a warfare against mankind.

It is a war against all nations. American ships have been sunk, American lives taken, in ways which it has stirred us very deeply to learn of, but the ships and people of other neutral and friendly nations have been sunk and overwhelmed in the waters in the same way. There has been no discrimination.

The challenge is to all mankind. Each nation must decide for itself how it will meet it. The choice we make for ourselves must be made with a moderation of counsel and a temperateness of judgment befitting our character and our motives as a nation. We must put excited feeling away. Our motive will not be revenge or the victorious assertion of the physical might of the nation, but only the vindication of right, of human right, of which we are only a single champion.

When I addressed the Congress on the 26th of February last I thought that it would suffice to assert our neutral rights with arms, our right to use the seas against unlawful interference, our right to keep our people safe against unlawful violence. But armed neutrality, it now appears, is impracticable. Because submarines are in effect outlaws, when used as the German submarines have been used against merchant shipping, it is impossible to defend ships against their attacks, as the law of nations has assumed that merchantmen would defend themselves against privateers or cruisers, visible craft giving chase upon the open sea. It is common prudence in such circumstances, grim necessity indeed, to endeavor to destroy them before they have shown their own intention. They must be dealt with upon sight, if dealt with at all.

The German Government denies the right of neutrals to use arms at all within the areas of the sea which it has proscribed, even in the

defense of rights which no modern publicist has ever before questioned their right to defend. The intimation is conveyed that the armed guards which we have placed on our merchant ships will be treated as beyond the pale of law and subject to be dealt with as pirates would be. Armed neutrality is ineffectual enough at best; in such circumstances and in the face of such pretensions it is worse than ineffectual; it is likely only to produce what it was meant to prevent; it is practically certain to draw us into the war without either the rights or the effectiveness of belligerents. There is one choice we cannot make, we are incapable of making; we will not choose the path of submission and suffer the most sacred rights of our nation and our people to be ignored or violated. The wrongs against which we now array ourselves are no common wrongs; they cut to the very roots of human life.

State of War Recognized

With a profound sense of the solemn and even tragical character of the step I am taking and of the grave responsibilities which it involves, but in unhesitating obedience to what I deem my constitutional duty, I advise that the Congress declare the recent course of the Imperial German Government to be in fact nothing less than war against the Government and people of the United States; that it formally accept the status of belligerent which has thus been thrust upon it; and that it take immediate steps not only to put the country in a more thorough state of defense, but also to exert all its power and employ all its resources to bring the Government of the German Empire to terms and end the war.

What this will involve is clear. It will involve the utmost practicable co-operation in counsel and action with the Governments now at war with Germany, and, as incident to that, the extension to those Governments of the most liberal financial credits, in order that our resources may so far as possible be added to theirs.

It will involve the organization and mobilization of all the material resources of the country to supply the materials of war and serve the incidental needs of the nation in the most abundant and yet the most economical and efficient way possible.

It will involve the immediate full equipment of the navy in all respects, but particularly in supplying it with the best means of dealing with the enemy's submarines.

It will involve the immediate addition to the armed forces of the United States, already provided for by law in case of war, of at least 500,000 men, who should, in my opinion, be chosen upon the principle of universal liability to service, and also the authorization of subsequent additional increments of equal force so soon as they may be needed and can be handled in training.

It will involve also, of course, the granting of adequate credits to the Government, sustained, I hope, so far as they can equitably be sustained by the present generation, by well-conceived taxation.

I say sustained so far as may be equitable by taxation, because it seems to me that it would be most unwise to base the credits, which will now be necessary, entirely on money borrowed. It is our duty, I most respectfully urge, to protect our people, so far as we may, against the very serious hardships and evils which would be likely to arise out of the inflation which would be produced by vast loans.

In carrying out the measures by which these things are to be accomplished we should keep constantly in mind the wisdom of interfering as little as possible in our own preparation and in the equipment of our own military forces with the duty—for it will be a very practical duty—of supplying the nations already at war with Germany with the materials which they can obtain only from us or by our assistance. They are in the field, and we should help them in every way to be effective there.

I shall take the liberty of suggesting, through the several executive departments of the Government, for the consideration of your committees, measures for the accomplishment of the several objects I have mentioned. I hope that it will be your pleasure to deal with them as having been framed after very careful thought by the branch of the Government upon whom the responsibility of conducting the war and safeguarding the nation will most directly fall.

While we do these things, these deeply momentous things, let us be very clear, and make very clear to all the world, what our motives and our objects are. My own thought has not been driven from its habitual and normal course by the unhappy events of the last two months, and I do not believe that the thought of the nation has been altered or clouded by them. I have exactly the same things in mind now that I had in mind when I addressed the Senate on the 22d of January last; the same that I had in mind when I addressed the Congress on the 3d of February and on the 26th of February. Our object now, as then, is to vindicate the principles of peace and justice in the life of the world as against selfish and autocratic power, and to set up among the really free and self-governed peoples of the world such a concert of purpose and of action as will henceforth insure the observance of those principles.

The Menace of Autocracy

Neutrality is no longer feasible or desirable where the peace of the world is involved and the freedom of its peoples, and the menace to that peace and freedom lies in the existence of autocratic Governments, backed by organized force which is controlled wholly by their will, not by the will of their people. We have seen the last of neutrality in such circumstances. We are at the beginning of an age in which it will be insisted that the same standards of conduct and of responsibility for wrong done shall be observed among nations and their Governments that are observed among the individual citizens of civilized States.

We have no quarrel with the German people. We have no feeling

toward them but one of sympathy and friendship. It was not upon their impulse that their Government acted in entering this war. It was not with their previous knowledge or approval. It was a war determined upon as wars used to be determined upon in the old, unhappy days, when peoples were nowhere consulted by their rulers and wars were provoked and waged in the interest of dynasties or of little groups of ambitious men who were accustomed to use their fellow-men as pawns and tools.

Self-governed nations do not fill their neighbor States with spies or set the course of intrigue to bring about some critical posture of affairs which will give them an opportunity to strike and make conquest. Such designs can be successfully worked out only under cover and where no one has the right to ask questions. Cunningly contrived plans of deception or aggression, carried, it may be, from generation to generation, can be worked out and kept from the light only within the privacy of courts or behind the carefully guarded confidences of a narrow and privileged class. They are happily impossible where public opinion commands and insists upon full information concerning all the nation's affairs.

The Only Basis for Peace

A steadfast concert for peace can never be maintained except by a partnership of democratic nations. No autocratic Government could be trusted to keep faith within it or observe its covenants. It must be a league of honor, a partnership of opinion. Intrigue would eat its vitals away; the plottings of inner circles who could plan what they would and render account to no one would be a corruption seated at its very heart. Only free peoples can hold their purpose and their honor steady to a common end and prefer the interests of mankind to any narrow interest of their own.

Does not every American feel that assurance has been added to our hope for the future peace of the world by the wonderful and heartening things that have been happening within the last few weeks in Russia? Russia was known by those who knew her best to have been always in fact democratic at heart in all the vital habits of her thought, in all the intimate relationships of her people that spoke their natural instinct, their habitual attitude toward life. The autocracy that crowned the summit of her political structure, long as it had stood and terrible as was the reality of its power, was not in fact Russian in origin, character, or purpose; and now it has been shaken off and the great, generous Russian people have been added, in all their naive majesty and might, to the forces that are fighting for freedom in the world, for justice, and for peace. Here is a fit partner for a League of Honor.

One of the things that have served to convince us that the Prussian autocracy was not and could never be our friend is that from the very outset of the present war it has filled our unsuspecting communities, and even our offices of government, with spies and set criminal intrigues everywhere afoot against our national unity of counsel, our peace within

and without, our industries and our commerce. Indeed, it is now evident that its spies were here even before the war began; and it is unhappily not a matter of conjecture, but a fact proved in our courts of justice, that the intrigues which have more than once come perilously near to disturbing the peace and dislocating the industries of the country, have been carried on at the instigation, with the support, and even under the personal direction of official agents of the Imperial Government accredited to the Government of the United States.

Even in checking these things and trying to extirpate them we have sought to put the most generous interpretation possible upon them because we knew that their source lay, not in any hostile feeling or purpose of the German people toward us, (who were, no doubt, as ignorant of them as we ourselves were,) but only in the selfish designs of a Government that did what it pleased and told its people nothing. But they have played their part in serving to convince us at last that that Government entertains no real friendship for us, and means to act against our peace and security at its convenience. That it means to stir up enemies against us at our very doors the intercepted note to the German Minister at Mexico City is eloquent evidence.

We are accepting this challenge of hostile purpose because we know that in such a Government, following such methods, we can never have a friend; and that in the presence of its organized power, always lying in wait to accomplish we know not what purpose, there can be no assured security for the democratic Governments of the world. We are now about to accept the gage of battle with this natural foe to liberty and shall, if necessary, spend the whole force of the nation to check and nullify its pretensions and its power. We are glad, now that we see the facts with no veil of false pretense about them, to fight thus for the ultimate peace of the world and for the liberation of its peoples, the German peoples included; for the rights of nations, great and small, and the privilege of men everywhere to choose their way of life and of obedience.

A World Safe for Democracy

The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty. We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them.

Just because we fight without rancor and without selfish object, seeking nothing for ourselves but what we shall wish to share with all free peoples, we shall, I feel confident, conduct our operations as belligerents without passion and ourselves observe with proud punctilio the principles of right and of fair play we profess to be fighting for.

I have said nothing of the Governments allied with the Imperial

Government of Germany because they have not made war upon us or challenged us to defend our right and our honor. The Austro-Hungarian Government has, indeed, avowed its unqualified indorsement and acceptance of the reckless and lawless submarine warfare, adopted now without disguise by the Imperial German Government, and it has therefore not been possible for this Government to receive Count Tarnowski, the Ambassador recently accredited to this Government by the Imperial and Royal Government of Austria-Hungary; but that Government has not actually engaged in warfare against citizens of the United States on the seas, and I take the liberty, for the present at least, of postponing a discussion of our relations with the authorities at Vienna. We enter this war only where we are clearly forced into it because there are no other means of defending our rights.

It will be all the easier for us to conduct ourselves as belligerents in a high spirit of right and fairness because we act without animus, not with enmity toward a people or with the desire to bring any injury or disadvantage upon them, but only in armed opposition to an irresponsible Government which has thrown aside all considerations of humanity and of right and is running amuck.

Friends of the German People

We are, let me say again, the sincere friends of the German people, and shall desire nothing so much as the early re-establishment of intimate relations of mutual advantage between us, however hard it may be for them for the time being to believe that this is spoken from our hearts. We have borne with their present Government through all these bitter months because of that friendship, exercising a patience and forbearance which would otherwise have been impossible.

We shall happily still have an opportunity to prove that friendship in our daily attitude and actions toward the millions of men and women of German birth and native sympathy who live among us and share our life, and we shall be proud to prove it toward all who are in fact loyal to their neighbors and to the Government in the hour of test. They are most of them as true and loyal Americans as if they had never known any other fealty or allegiance. They will be prompt to stand with us in rebuking and restraining the few who may be of a different mind and purpose. If there should be disloyalty, it will be dealt with with a firm hand of stern repression; but, if it lifts its head at all, it will lift it only here and there and without countenance except from a lawless and malignant few.

It is a distressing and oppressive duty, gentlemen of the Congress, which I have performed in thus addressing you. There are, it may be, many months of fiery trial and sacrifice ahead of us. It is a fearful thing to lead this great, peaceful people into war, into the most terrible and disastrous of all wars, civilization itself seeming to be in the balance.

But the right is more precious than peace, and we shall fight for the

things which we have always carried nearest our hearts—for democracy, for the right of those who submit to authority to have a voice in their own Governments, for the rights and liberties of small nations, for a universal dominion of right by such a concert of free peoples as shall bring peace and safety to all nations and make the world itself at last free.

To such a task we can dedicate our lives and our fortunes, everything that we are and everything that we have, with the pride of those who know that the day has come when America is privileged to spend her blood and her might for the principles that gave her birth and happiness and the peace which she has treasured.

God helping her, she can do no other.

Text of the Declaration of War

Joint Resolution Passed by the United States Senate and House of Representatives

[Effective April 6, 1917, at 1:18 P. M.]

Whereas, The Imperial German Government has committed repeated acts of war against the Government and the people of the United States of America; therefore, be it

Resolved, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the state of war between the United States and the Imperial German Government, which has thus been thrust upon the United States, is hereby formally declared; and

That the President be, and he is hereby, authorized and directed to employ the entire naval and military forces of the United States and the resources of the Government to carry on war against the Imperial German Government; and to bring the conflict to a successful termination all the resources of the country are hereby pledged by the Congress of the United States.

Proclamation to the American People

Text of President Wilson's Formal Announcement of a State of War

[Issued on April 6, 1917.]

Whereas, The Congress of the United States, in the exercise of the constitutional authority vested in them, have resolved by joint resolution of the Senate and House of Representatives, bearing date this day, "that a state of war between the United States and the Imperial German Government which has been thrust upon the United States is hereby formally declared";

Whereas, It is provided by Section 4,067 of the Revised Statutes as follows:

"Whenever there is declared a war between the United States and any foreign nation or Government or any invasion or predatory incursion is perpetrated, attempted, or threatened against the territory of the United States by any foreign nation or Government, and the President makes public proclamation of the event, all native citizens, denizens, or subjects of a hostile nation or Government being male of the age of 14 years and upward, who shall be within the United States and not

actually naturalized, shall be liable to be apprehended, restrained, secured, and removed as alien enemies. The President is authorized in any such event by his proclamation thereof, or other public acts, to direct the conduct to be observed on the part of the United States toward the aliens who become so liable; the manner and degree of the restraint to which they shall be subject and in what cases and upon what security their residence shall be permitted, and to provide for the removal of those who, not being permitted to reside within the United States, refuse or neglect to depart therefrom; and to establish any such regulations which are found necessary in the premises and for the public safety."

Whereas, By Sections 4,068, 4,069, and 4,070 of the Revised Statutes, further provision is made relative to alien enemies;

Now, therefore, I, Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States of America, do hereby proclaim, to all whom it may concern, that a state of war exists between the United States and the Imperial German Government, and I do specially direct all officers, civil or military, of the United States that they exercise vigilance and zeal in the discharge of the duties incident to such a state of war, and I do, moreover, earnestly appeal to all American citizens that they, in loyal devotion to their country, dedicated from its foundation to the principles of liberty and justice, uphold the laws of the land, and give undivided and willing support to those measures which may be adopted by the constitutional authorities in prosecuting the war to a successful issue and in obtaining a secure and just peace;

And, acting under and by virtue of the authority vested in me by the Constitution of the United States and the said sections of the Revised Statutes,

I do hereby further proclaim and direct that the conduct to be observed on the part of the United States toward all natives, citizens, denizens, or subjects of Germany, being male of the age of 14 years and upward, who shall be within the United States and not actually naturalized, who for the purpose of this proclamation and under such sections of the Revised Statutes are termed alien enemies, shall be as follows:

All alien enemies are enjoined to preserve the peace toward the United States and to refrain from crime against the public safety and from violating the laws of the United States and of the States and Territories thereof, and to refrain from actual hostility or giving information, aid, or comfort to the enemies of the United States and to comply strictly with the regulations which are hereby, or which may be from time to time promulgated by the President, and so long as they shall conduct themselves in accordance with law they shall be undisturbed in the peaceful pursuit of their lives and occupations, and be accorded the consideration due to all peaceful and law-abiding persons, except so far as restrictions may be necessary for their own protection and for the safety of the United States, and toward such alien enemies as conduct themselves in accordance with law all citizens of the United States are enjoined to preserve the peace and to treat them with all such friendliness as may be compatible with loyalty and allegiance to the United States.

And all alien enemies who fail to conduct themselves as so enjoined, in addition to all other penalties prescribed by law, shall be liable to restraint or to give security or to remove and depart from the United States, in the manner prescribed by Sections 4,069 and 4,070 of the Revised Statutes and as prescribed in the regulations duly promulgated by the President.

And pursuant to the authority vested in me, I hereby declare and establish the following regulations, which I find necessary in the premises and for the public safety:

1. An alien enemy shall not have in his possession at any time or place any firearms, weapons, or implements of war, or component parts thereof, ammunition, Maxim or other silencer, arms, or explosives or material used in the manufacture of explosives;

2. An alien enemy shall not have in his possession at any time or place, or use or operate, any aircraft or wireless apparatus, or any form of signaling device or any form

of cipher code or any paper, document, or book written or printed in cipher or in which there may be invisible writing;

3. All property found in the possession of an alien enemy in violation of the foregoing regulations shall be subject to seizure by the United States;

4. An alien enemy shall not approach or be found within one-half of a mile of any Federal or State fort, camp, arsenal, aircraft station, Government or naval vessel, navy yard, factory, or workshop for the manufacture of munitions of war or of any products for the use of the army or navy;

5. An alien enemy shall not write, print, or publish any attack or threat against the Government or Congress of the United States, or either branch thereof, or against the measures or policy of the United States, or against the persons or property of any person in the military, naval, or civil service of the United States, or of the States or Territories, or of the District of Columbia, or of the municipal governments therein;

6. An alien enemy shall not commit or abet any hostile acts against the United States or give information, aid, or comfort to its enemies;

7. An alien enemy shall not reside in or continue to reside in, to remain in, or enter any locality which the President may from time to time designate by an Executive order as a prohibitive area, in which residence by an alien enemy shall be found by him to constitute a danger to the public peace and safety of the United States, except by permit from the President and except under such limitations or restrictions as the President may prescribe;

8. An alien enemy whom the President shall have reasonable cause to believe to be aiding or about to aid the enemy or to be at large to the danger of the public peace or safety of the United States, or to have violated or to be about to violate any of these regulations, shall remove to any location designated by the President by Executive order, and shall not remove therefrom without permit, or shall depart from the United States if so required by the President;

9. No alien enemy shall depart from the United States until he shall have received such permit as the President shall prescribe, or except under order of a court, Judge, or Justice, under Sections 4,069 and 4,070 of the Revised Statutes;

10. No alien enemy shall land in or enter the United States except under such restrictions and at such places as the President may prescribe;

11. If necessary to prevent violation of the regulations, all alien enemies will be obliged to register;

12. An alien enemy whom there may be reasonable cause to believe to be aiding or about to aid the enemy, or who may be at large to the danger of the public peace or safety, or who violates or who attempts to violate or of whom there is reasonable grounds to believe that he is about to violate, any regulation to be promulgated by the President or any criminal law of the United States, or of the States or Territories thereof, will be subject to summary arrest by the United States Marshal, or his Deputy, or such other officers as the President shall designate, and to confinement in such penitentiary, prison, jail, military camp, or other place of detention as may be directed by the President.

This proclamation and the regulations herein contained shall extend and apply to all land and water, continental or insular, in any way within the jurisdiction of the United States.

The President's War Economies Proclamation

THE WHITE HOUSE, April 15, 1917.

My Fellow-Countrymen:

THE entrance of our own beloved country into the grim and terrible war for democracy and human rights which has shaken the world creates so many problems of national life and action which call for immediate consideration and settlement that I hope you will permit me to address to you a few words of earnest counsel and appeal with regard to them.

We are rapidly putting our navy upon an effective war footing, and are about to create and equip a great army, but these are the simplest parts of the great task to which we have addressed ourselves. There is not a single selfish element, so far as I can see, in the cause we are fighting for. We are fighting for what we believe and wish to be the rights of mankind and for the future peace and security of the world. To do this great thing worthily and successfully we must devote ourselves

to the service without regard to profit or material advantage and with an energy and intelligence that will rise to the level of the enterprise itself. We must realize to the full how great the task is and how many things, how many kinds and elements of capacity and service and self-sacrifice it involves.

These, then, are the things we must do, and do well, besides fighting—the things without which mere fighting would be fruitless:

We must supply abundant food for ourselves and for our armies and our seamen, not only, but also for a large part of the nations with whom we have now made common cause, in whose support and by whose sides we shall be fighting.

We must supply ships by the hundreds out of our shipyards to carry to the other side of the sea, submarines or no submarines, what will every day be needed there, and abundant materials out of our fields and our mines and our factories with which not only to clothe and equip our own forces on land and sea, but also to clothe and support our people, for whom the gallant fellows under arms can no longer work; to help clothe and equip the armies with which we are co-operating in Europe, and to keep the looms and manufactories there in raw material; coal to keep the fires going in ships at sea and in the furnaces of hundreds of factories across the sea; steel out of which to make arms and ammunition both here and there; rails for wornout railways back of the fighting fronts; locomotives and rolling stock to take the place of those every day going to pieces; mules, horses, cattle for labor and for military service; everything with which the people of England and France and Italy and Russia have usually supplied themselves, but cannot now afford the men, the materials, or the machinery to make.

It is evident to every thinking man that our industries, on the farms, in the shipyards, in the mines, in the factories, must be made more prolific and more efficient than ever, and that they must be more economically managed and better adapted to the particular requirements of our task than they have been; and what I want to say is that the men and the women who devote their thought and their energy to these things will be serving the country and conducting the fight for peace and freedom just as truly and just as effectively as the men on the battlefield or in the trenches. The industrial forces of the country, men and women alike, will be a great national, a great international service army—a notable and honored host engaged in the service of the nation and the world, the efficient friends and saviors of free men everywhere. Thousands, nay, hundreds of thousands, of men otherwise liable to military service will of right and of necessity be excused from that service and assigned to the fundamental, sustaining work of the fields and factories and mines, and they will be as much part of the great patriotic forces of the nation as the men under fire.

I take the liberty, therefore, of addressing this word to the farmers of the country and to all who work on the farms: The supreme need of our own nation and of the nations with which we are co-operating is an abundance of supplies, and especially of foodstuffs. The importance of an adequate food supply, especially for the present year, is superlative. Without abundant food, alike for the armies and the peoples now at war, the whole great enterprise upon which we have embarked will break down and fail. The world's food reserves are low. Not only during the present emergency, but for some time after peace shall have come, both our own people and a large proportion of the people of Europe must rely upon the harvests in America.

Upon the farmers of this country, therefore, in large measure rests the fate of the war and the fate of the nations. May the nation not count upon them to omit no step that will increase the production of their land or that will bring about the most effectual co-operation in the sale and distribution of their products? The time is short. It is of the most imperative importance that everything possible be done, and done immediately, to make sure of large harvests. I call upon young men and old alike and upon the able-bodied boys of the land to accept and act upon this

duty—to turn in hosts to the farms and make certain that no pains and no labor is lacking in this great matter.

I particularly appeal to the farmers of the South to plant abundant foodstuffs, as well as cotton. They can show their patriotism in no better or more convincing way than by resisting the great temptation of the present price of cotton and helping, helping upon a great scale, to feed the nation and the peoples everywhere who are fighting for their liberties and for our own. The variety of their crops will be the visible measure of their comprehension of their national duty.

The Government of the United States and the Governments of the several States stand ready to co-operate. They will do everything possible to assist farmers in securing an adequate supply of seed, an adequate force of laborers when they are most needed, at harvest time, and the means of expediting shipments of fertilizers and farm machinery, as well as of the crops themselves when harvested. The course of trade shall be as unhampered as it is possible to make it, and there shall be no unwarranted manipulation of the nation's food supply by those who handle it on its way to the consumer. This is our opportunity to demonstrate the efficiency of a great democracy, and we shall not fall short of it!

This let me say to the middlemen of every sort, whether they are handling our foodstuffs or our raw materials of manufacture or the products of our mills and factories: The eyes of the country will be especially upon you. This is your opportunity for signal service, efficient and disinterested. The country expects you, as it expects all others, to forego unusual profits, to organize and expedite shipments of supplies of every kind, but especially of food, with an eye to the service you are rendering and in the spirit of those who enlist in the ranks, for their people, not for themselves. I shall confidently expect you to deserve and win the confidence of people of every sort and station.

To the men who run the railways of the country, whether they be managers or operative employees, let me say that the railways are the arteries of the nation's life and that upon them rests the immense responsibility of seeing to it that those arteries suffer no obstruction of any kind, no inefficiency or slackened power. To the merchant let me suggest the motto, "Small profits and quick service," and to the shipbuilder the thought that the life of the war depends upon him. The food and the war supplies must be carried across the seas, no matter how many ships are sent to the bottom. The places of those that go down must be supplied, and supplied at once. To the miner let me say that he stands where the farmer does: the work of the world waits on him. If he slackens or fails, armies and statesmen are helpless. He also is enlisted in the great Service Army. The manufacturer does not need to be told, I hope, that the nation looks to him to speed and perfect every process; and I want only to remind his employes that their service is absolutely indispensable and is counted on by every man who loves the country and its liberties.

Let me suggest, also, that every one who creates or cultivates a garden helps, and helps greatly, to solve the problem of the feeding of the nations; and that every housewife who practices strict economy puts herself in the ranks of those who serve the nation. This is the time for America to correct her unpardonable fault of wastefulness and extravagance. Let every man and every woman assume the duty of careful, provident use and expenditure as a public duty, as a dictate of patriotism which no one can now expect ever to be excused or forgiven for ignoring.

In the hope that this statement of the needs of the nation and of the world in this hour of supreme crisis may stimulate those to whom it comes and remind all who need reminder of the solemn duties of a time such as the world has never seen before, I beg that all editors and publishers everywhere will give as prominent publication and as wide circulation as possible to this appeal. I venture to suggest, also, to all advertising agencies that they would perhaps render a very substantial and timely service to the country if they would give it widespread repetition. And I hope that clergymen will not think the theme of it an unworthy or inappropriate subject of comment and homily from their pulpits.

The supreme test of the nation has come. We must all speak, act, and serve together!

WOODROW WILSON.

UNITED STATES DECLARES WAR

Narrative of Events Before and After the Nation's Entrance Into War Against Germany

THE United States and the Imperial German Government were officially proclaimed to be at war on Friday, April 6, 1917, when the President of the United States signed a joint resolution passed in both houses of Congress by overwhelming majorities, formally declaring a state of war between the two Governments.

On March 9 President Wilson, after the Senate had modified its rules so that debate could be limited, called Congress to meet in extra session on April 16, "to receive such communications as may be made by the Executive." This call was contemporaneous with the President's decision that he would authorize the arming of merchant ships and the detail of naval gun crews to man them as a protection against unrestricted German submarines. It was construed as practically a war measure in that the President desired Congress to be at hand to give support to the Government in its defense of merchant shipping.

On March 12 Secretary Lansing gave the following formal notice of the action of the United States:

In view of the announcement of the Imperial German Government on Jan. 31, 1917, that all ships, those of neutrals included, met within certain zones of the high seas, would be sunk without any precaution taken for the safety of the persons on board, and without the exercise of visit and search, the Government of the United States has determined to place upon all American merchant vessels sailing through the barred areas an armed guard for the protection of the vessels and the lives of the persons on board.

On March 14 the news came that the American steamship *Algonquin*, bound from New York for London with a cargo of foodstuffs, had been attacked without warning on March 2, and had been sunk by a German submarine with shell fire and bombs; the crew had escaped, and after twenty-seven hours in open boats had been rescued. This news created a disagreeable impression

throughout the country. Public opinion at length burst into intense excitement on Monday, March 19, when it was announced that within the preceding twenty-four hours three American ships, the *City of Memphis*, the *Illinois*, and the *Vigilancia*, had been sunk by German submarines near the English coast, and that fifteen members of the *Vigilancia*'s crew were lost. The *City of Memphis*, some of whose men were then missing, had left Cardiff in ballast for New York the day before; she was overhauled Saturday at 5 P. M. by a German submarine and the Captain was given fifteen minutes to get his crew into boats. The American flag was flying from the mast, but the ship was shelled, torpedoed, and sunk within twenty minutes. The *Vigilancia* was torpedoed without warning; she was in ballast. The *Illinois* was a tank steamship and was bound from Texas for London with a cargo of oil valued at \$1,000,000. The *City of Memphis* was of 5,252 gross tonnage; the *Vigilancia* 4,115, the *Illinois* 5,220 tons; all bore the American flag and were conspicuously marked as American ships.

The news of the sinking of these vessels created deep indignation. It was apparent that Germany had determined to defy the American people to do their worst, and the issue of peace or war was no longer in doubt.

The day following the receipt of the news President Wilson had a long conference with Secretary of the Navy Daniels, and as a result orders were issued for speeding up work on warships under construction; also for the issue of bonds to obtain money for this purpose. The eight-hour day for Government naval construction was suspended; two classes of midshipmen were ordered to be graduated ahead of time, and all other preparations for war were hurried. The country was in tense expectation of some momentous step.

The Cabinet was summoned by the

President on the afternoon of the 20th, and the session lasted more than two hours. No formal announcement of the decision was made, but it was given out that it was the unanimous opinion of the President's advisers that a state of war was in fact existing between the United States and Germany, and that the special session of Congress should be summoned to meet at an earlier date than April 16, the time originally set.

On Wednesday, March 21, the President reached his momentous decision, and forthwith issued a proclamation summoning Congress in extra session on April 2, "to receive a communication by the Executive on grave questions of national policy, which should be immediately taken under consideration."

Nation's War Sentiment

This action was recognized everywhere as the preliminary step to declaring a state of war. Europe regarded it as the definite plunge of the United States into the world conflict. Meanwhile all war preparations were actively proceeding, and the war policy of the country was taking shape.

The news from America was received in Germany without excitement and produced no alteration whatever in her submarine policy. During the night of March 22 the American tank steamer *Healdton*, proceeding with a cargo of petroleum from Philadelphia to Rotterdam, was sunk without warning in the North Sea, and seven of her crew were lost.

Mass meetings were held in many parts of the United States, pledging loyalty to the country, approving the severance of relations with Germany, and demanding war. Typical of these were the resolutions passed at a mass meeting of 12,000 people in Madison Square Garden, New York, on March 22. Addresses were delivered by former Secretary of State Root, a stanch Republican; former Secretary of the Treasury Fairchild, a strong Democrat, and Mayor Mitchel of New York. A letter from former President Roosevelt was read, in which he asserted that Germany was at war with the United States and demanded that we accept the gage of battle. The resolutions adopted were as follows:

Whereas, Germany has destroyed our ships, murdered our citizens, restricted our commerce by illegal submarine warfare, and attempted to array against us the friendly powers Japan and Mexico in a plot to dismember our nation; and

Whereas, By these and other hostile acts Germany is now virtually making war against the United States;

Resolved, That we approve the action of the President in severing diplomatic relations with Germany, in deciding to arm American vessels, and in calling Congress in extra session;

Resolved, That we call upon our Government for prompt, vigorous, and courageous leadership in the immediate mobilizing of the entire naval, military, and industrial strength of the nation, including the augmenting of our army and navy for the effective protection of American rights and the faithful discharge of America's duties in the present crisis;

Resolved, That we urge upon Congress the immediate enactment of a Universal Military Training bill providing for a permanent national defense based on the duty of every able-bodied citizen to share in the protection of his country and in the maintenance of its high ideals;

Resolved, That we declare our deep conviction that the principles of national conduct governing Germany's actions in the present war are inconsistent with the principles of democracy and with the purposes and aspirations of this Republic; and we hold that the time has now come when it is the duty of this nation to take part in the common task of defending civilization and human liberty against German military aggression; and

Whereas, Our Government in severing diplomatic relations with Germany gave notice that further overt acts of war would be forcibly resisted; and said overt acts have been committed in the sinking of the *Laconia*, the *City of Memphis*, the *Illinois*, the *Vigilancia*, and other vessels, with the loss of American lives; therefore, be it

Resolved, That we call upon Congress as soon as assembled to declare that by the acts of Germany a state of war does now exist between that country and the United States.

Activities of Pacifists

On the other hand, a group of prominent men were strongly opposed to our entry into the war. They instituted a nation-wide publicity propaganda to bring public pressure upon Congress and the President to keep us out of war. A mass meeting was held in New York on the night of March 24 at Madison Square Garden, and resolutions were passed opposing war and demanding a general referendum on the subject. All over the

MEMBERS OF WAR COUNCIL AT WASHINGTON



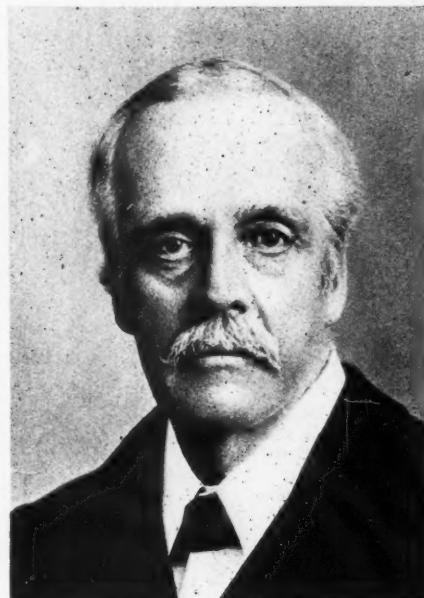
RENE VIVIANI
French Minister of Justice



MARSHAL JOFFRE
Victor of the Marne



MAJ. GEN. G. T. M. BRIDGES
Of British War Office
(© International News)



ARTHUR J. BALFOUR
British Foreign Minister
(Central News Service)

COMMANDERS OF ARMY DEPARTMENTS



MAJ. GEN. J. FRANKLIN
BELL
Eastern Department
(Photo Bain)



BRIG. GEN. CLARENCE R.
EDWARDS
Northeastern Department
(Harris & Ewing)



MAJ. GEN. HUNTER
LIGGETT
Western Department
(© Harris & Ewing)



MAJ. GEN. THOS. H. BARRY
Central Department
(Underwood & Underwood)

country, however, there were evidences that the prevailing sentiment was overwhelmingly for war. Many States took steps toward defense and appropriated large sums to provide the measures.

Preliminary Call for Men

On March 25 President Wilson signed an order authorizing an increase in the enlisted strength of the navy to 87,000 men, being an addition of 26,000, and the War Department issued orders calling out units of the National Guard in nine Eastern States and the District of Columbia for police purposes. The order was regarded as indicating extensive precautions to forestall any outbreak by enemy agents upon the expected declaration of a state of war. Munitions plants, bridges, railroads, and all other important public property which might be in danger of attack upon the outbreak of war were to be carefully guarded.

The first call affected 13,000 men; on March 26 units from eighteen Western States, affecting 25,000 additional men, were called, and this was followed by other calls, so that by April 12 60,000 National Guardsmen had been called out.

Policy Toward Germans

To allay unrest and apprehension of Germans residing in the United States, it was announced at Washington on the 20th that there would be no general internment of German citizens or German reservists resident in this country in the event of war between the United States and Germany. Secretary of War Baker authorized the formal statement that "everybody of every nationality who conducts himself in accordance with American law will be free from official molestation, both now and in the future." He declared that rumors that the department had plans for the internment of resident aliens had no foundation in fact.

It was during this period of excitement that the arrival was announced of the first armed American steamship at a European port. The American liner *St. Louis* left New York March 17, with two guns forward and one aft and with a detail of crack marksmen of the United States Navy; she reached Liverpool with-

out encountering any hostile submarines, on Monday, March 26. During the same period merchantmen of various other lines were equipped with guns and departed daily from various American ports.

The period between the President's call and the assembling of Congress was full of excitement throughout the country. Every department of the Government was keyed up to the highest pitch of energetic preparation for war. The mustering out of National Guardsmen who had been on duty on the Mexican border was stopped, and 22,000 guardsmen who were about to be relieved were retained in the ranks. The navy intensified its recruiting work and the Cabinet held daily sessions to discuss questions of war policy and of ways and means.

German Chancellor's Speech

The first official word that came from Germany after it was clear that President Wilson had decided to ask Congress to declare war was made public March 30 in the form of a dispatch from Berlin, transmitted by the semi-official news agency, giving the text of a speech delivered in the German Reichstag March 29 by Chancellor von Bethmann Hollweg. He proceeded to review the causes which led up to the unrestricted use of submarines by Germany as a matter, he said, of self-defense. Then he added:

Within the next few days the directors of the American Nation will be convened by President Wilson for an extraordinary session of Congress in order to decide the question of war or peace between the American and German Nations.

Germany never had the slightest intention of attacking the United States of America, and does not have such intention now. It never desired war against the United States of America and does not desire it today.

How did these things develop? More than once we told the United States that we made unrestricted use of the submarine weapon, expecting that England could be made to observe, in her policy of blockade, the laws of humanity and of international agreements. This blockade policy (this I expressly recall) has been called illegal and indefensible (the Imperial Chancellor here used the English words) by President Wilson and Secretary of State Lansing.

Our expectations, which we maintained during eight months, have been disappointed completely. England not only did not give up

her illegal and indefensible policy of blockade, but uninterruptedly intensified it. England, together with her allies, arrogantly rejected the peace offers made by us and our allies and proclaimed her war aims, which aim at our annihilation and that of our allies.

Then we took unrestricted submarine warfare into our hands; then we had to for our defense.

If the American Nation considers this a cause for which to declare war against the German Nation with which it has lived in peace for more than 100 years, if this action warrants an increase of bloodshed, we shall not have to bear the responsibility for it. The German Nation, which feels neither hatred nor hostility against the United States of America, shall also bear and overcome this.

Among the speeches of party leaders commenting on the Chancellor's address those of Dr. Gustav Stresemann, National Liberal, and Count von Westarp, Conservative, were the most important. Herr Stresemann remarked:

"A declaration of war by America will be possible only because American public opinion has been misled."

Count von Westarp alluded briefly to America, saying:

"We can await the decision of America with complete calm, and the execution of our operations in the barred zone will not be changed thereby."

Lord Cecil's Bitter Reply

This declaration of the Imperial Chancellor was bitterly attacked the next day by Lord Robert Cecil, the British Blockade Minister, in the following formal statement:

The German Chancellor claims that Germany in the past renounced the unrestricted use of her submarine weapon in the expectation that Great Britain could be made to observe in her blockade policy the laws of humanity and international agreements. It is difficult to say whether this statement is the more remarkable for its hypocrisy or for its falseness. It would hardly seem that Germany is in a position to speak of humanity or international agreements, since she began this war by deliberately violating the international agreement guaranteeing the neutrality of Belgium, and has continued it by violating all the dictates of humanity.

Has the Chancellor forgotten that the German forces have been guilty of excesses in Belgium, unparalleled in history, culminating in the attempted enslavement of a dauntless people, of poisoning wells, of bombarding open towns, torpedoing hospital ships and sinking other vessels with total disregard for the safety of noncombatants on board, with

the result that many hundreds of innocent victims, including both women and children, have lost their lives?

The latest manifestation of this policy is to be seen in the devastation and deportations carried out by the Germans in their forced retreat on the western front.

The Chancellor states that it is because the Allies have not abandoned their blockade and have refused the so-called peace offer of Germany that unrestricted submarine warfare is now decided on. As to this I will do no more than quote what the Chancellor himself said in the Reichstag, when announcing the adoption of unrestricted submarine war.

He said that as soon as he himself, in agreement with the supreme army command, reached the conviction that ruthless U-boat warfare would bring Germany nearer to a victorious peace, then the U-boat warfare would be started. He continued:

"This moment has now arrived. Last Autumn the time was not ripe, but today the moment has come when, with the greatest prospect of success, we can undertake this enterprise. We must not wait any longer. Where has there been a change? In the first place, the most important fact of all is that the number of our submarines has been very considerably increased as compared with last Spring, and thereby a firm basis has been created for success."

Does not this prove conclusively that it was not any scruple or any respect for international law or neutral rights that prevented unrestricted warfare from being adopted earlier, but merely a lack of means to carry it out?

I think it may be useful once again to point out that the illegal and inhuman attack on shipping by the Germans cannot be justified as a reprisal for the action of Great Britain in attempting to cut off from Germany all imports.

The submarine campaign was clearly contemplated as far back as December, 1914, when Admiral von Tirpitz gave an indication to an American correspondent in Berlin of the projected plan.

As for the plea that the Allies are aiming at the annihilation of Germany and her allies and that ruthless warfare is, therefore, justified, it is sufficient in order to refute this to quote the following passage from the Allies' reply of Jan. 10, 1917, to President Wilson's note:

"There is no need to say that if the Allies desire to liberate Europe from the brutal covetousness of Prussian militarism, the extermination and political disappearance of the German people have never, as has been pretended, formed a part of their design."

Patriotic Rallies

A notable patriotic rally occurred March 31 at Independence Square, Philadelphia, when resolutions were adopted pledging loyal support to the President in

any action he might take for the protection of American rights on land and sea; it was one of the largest and most enthusiastic that ever assembled at Independence Square. Enthusiastic mass meetings with tumultuous ardor were also held in Chicago, Pittsburgh, Boston, Milwaukee, St. Louis, San Francisco, and in nearly all the important cities of the country.

The pacifist propagandists, however, were busy and were issuing appeals and urging united action to bring influences on Congress to avert a declaration of war. General calls were issued by both pacifists and war patriots to meet at Washington when Congress assembled, and there were acrimonious debates at various meetings between the contending parties, sometimes attended with violence.

Washington was a seething city on

April 1, the day before Congress convened; delegations of both pacifists and war patriots came from all parts of the country, though the number of pacifists fell considerably short of expectations. It was intended by both to hold conventions and parades, but in order to avoid possible trouble all parades in Washington were forbidden. The day Congress assembled there were few outward signs to indicate that the United States was about to enter into the greatest war in history. The only difference in the normal aspect of Washington was in the somewhat larger crowds in the streets and the fact that National Guardsmen and regular troops were on guard at strategic points, that the new iron gates of the White House grounds were closed and guarded, and that admittance to some of the Government departments was obtainable only on identification.

Historic Joint Session of Congress

THE new Congress, the Sixty-fifth, which had been chosen in the preceding November, met in response to the President's special call at noon on April 2. The members in assembling had to crowd their way through swarms of pacifists who had assembled on the Capitol steps to use what influence they could against war. The House of Representatives had resolved on acting in a patriotic spirit and determined to show no spirit of partisanship in organizing.

The blind Chaplain, the Rev. Dr. Henry M. Couden, offered a prayer in which he said:

God of the Ages, our father's God and our God, whose holy influence has shaped and guided the destiny of our Republic from its inception, we wait upon that influence to guide us in the present crisis which has been thrust upon us.

Diplomacy has failed; moral suasion has failed; every appeal to reason and justice has been swept aside. We abhor war and love peace. But if war has been, or shall be, forced upon us, we pray that the heart of every American citizen shall throb with patriotic zeal; that a united people may rally around our President to hold up his hands in every measure that shall be deemed necessary to protect American lives and safeguard our inherent rights.

Let Thy blessings, we beseech Thee, attend the Congress now convened in extraordinary session under extraordinary conditions which call for extraordinary thought, wise counsel, calm and deliberate legislation; that its resolves and all its enactments may spring spontaneously from loyal and patriotic hearts; that our defenders on land and sea may be amply supplied with the things which make for strength and efficiency.

And, O God, our Heavenly Father, let Thy strong right arm uphold, sustain, and guide us in a just and righteous cause; for Thine is the kingdom, the power, and glory, forever, amen.

The roll was then called, amid the usual confusion; but when Montana was reached the Clerk rapped for order, and in the stillness that finally followed he called the name of Miss Rankin, the first woman ever elected to Congress. Both sides of the House burst out in applause, and Miss Rankin blushed and smiled, but they wanted her to stand up, and they cheered until she did, bowing first to the Republican side, then to the Democratic.

Champ Clark as Speaker

Champ Clark was placed in nomination for his fourth term as Speaker by Mr. Schall of Minnesota, a man elected as a Progressive in a district which, he told

the House, contains 43,000 voters, of whom 32,000 are Republicans. Mr. Schall is a blind man. He spoke from the front of the House, leaning on a cane. The pith of Mr. Schall's speech was that both parties should sink partisanship and co-operate with the President, and that the best way to do it was to give him a Congress controlled by his own party.

"I, with my sightless eyes," he said, "would be of little use to my country on the field of battle, but I can cast my vote to help it. I know of no better way to stand by the President than to return his party to the control of the House."

James R. Mann was nominated by the Republicans. The vote stood: Clark, 217; Mann, 205; six Republicans declined to vote for Mr. Mann. The organization of the House was completed by 5 o'clock and adjournment was then taken until 8:30 to meet in joint session with the Senate to receive the President's address.

President Wilson came to the Capitol escorted by a squadron of cavalry.

The House an hour before had taken a recess. When it met again it was in a scene that the hall had never presented before. Directly in front of the Speaker and facing him sat the members of the Supreme Court without their gowns. Over at one side sat the members of the Diplomatic Corps in evening dress. It was the first time any one could remember when the foreign envoys had ever sat together officially in the Hall of Representatives.

Then the doors opened, and in came the Senators, headed by Vice President Marshall, each man wearing or carrying a small American flag. There were three or four exceptions, including Senators La Follette and Vardaman, but one had to look hard to find them, and Senator Stone was no exception. It was at 8:32 that they came in, and five minutes later the Speaker announced:

"The President of the United States."

President Delivers Address

As he walked in and ascended the speakers' platform he got such a reception as Congress had never given him before in any of his visits to it. The

Supreme Court Justices rose from their chairs, facing the place where he stood, and led the applause, while Representatives and Senators not only cheered, but yelled. It was two minutes before he could begin his address.

When he did begin it, he stood with his manuscript before him typewritten on sheets of note paper. He held it in both hands, resting his arm on the green baize covered desk, and at first he read without looking up, but after a while he would glance occasionally to the right or the left as he made a point, not as if he were trying to see the effect but more as a sort of gesture—the only one he employed.

Congress listened intently and without any sort of interruption while he recited the German crimes against humanity, his own and his country's effort to believe that the German rulers had not wholly cut themselves off from the path which civilized nations follow, and how the truth has been forced upon unwilling minds. Congress was waiting for his conclusions, and there was no applause or demonstration of any kind for the recital.

But when he finished his story of our efforts to avoid war and came to the sentence "armed neutrality, it now appears, is impracticable because submarines are in fact outlaws when used as the German submarines are used," the close attention deepened into a breathless silence, so painfully intense that it seemed almost audible.

The President ended at 9:11, having spoken thirty-six minutes. Then the great scene which had been enacted at his entrance was repeated. The diplomats, Supreme Court, the galleries, the House and Senate, Republicans and Democrats alike, stood in their places and the Senators waved flags they had brought in with them. Those who were wearing, not carrying, flags tore them from their lapels or their sleeves and waved with the rest, and they all cheered wildly.

Senator Robert Marion La Follette, however, stood motionless with his arms folded tight and high on his chest, so

that nobody could have any excuse for mistaking his attitude, and there he stood, chewing gum with a sardonic smile.

The President walked rapidly out of the hall, and when he had gone the Senators and the Supreme Court and the diplomats went their ways.

[The address of the President appears in preceding pages.]

After the departure of the President both houses of Congress were assembled and resolutions were introduced in each house embodying the President's recommendations that the state of war with Germany be declared. The resolutions were introduced in the House by Chairman Flood of the Foreign Relations Committee, and in the Senate by Senator Martin, both of Virginia, and at once referred to the respective committees, and the two houses thereupon adjourned.

[The text of the joint resolution is printed on page 198.]

Debate in the Senate

The war resolution was passed by the Senate at 11:11 P. M. Wednesday, April 4, after thirteen hours' debate, by a vote of 82 to 6, eight Senators being unavoidably absent—all the absentees favored the resolution, hence the true sentiment of the Senate was 90 to 6. The six Senators who voted nay were La Follette of Wisconsin, Gronna of North Dakota, Norris of Nebraska, Stone of Missouri, Lane of Oregon, and Vardaman of Mississippi, the first three being Republicans, the last three Democrats.

The opening speech was delivered by Senator Hitchcock of Nebraska, who was in charge of the resolution in substitution for Chairman Stone of the Foreign Relations Committee, who was in opposition. In his address the Senator said that Germany's resumption of submarine activity was not a violation of her word, but a revocation of it, a step taken in desperation.

It was not intended to provoke war with us, but it was followed by acts of war upon us. They were not made for the deliberate purpose of injuring us but rather to starve the English people. The effect, however, was the same. We were ordered off the high seas. We could not submit; no great nation could remain great and independent, if it did so.

No great nation could maintain its place in history if it permitted another to order it off the sea, if it permitted another to bottle up its commerce, if it permitted another to dictate to it in the exercise of its unquestioned right and to impose the penalty of murder of its citizens in case of refusal.

Words of Senator Lodge

Senator Lodge of Massachusetts, who had been precipitated into a personal affray in the Senate corridor the day before by a committee of pacifists and had knocked down one who attacked him, in the course of his remarks, said:

We have never been a military nation. We are not prepared for war in the modern sense; but we have vast resources and unbounded energies and the day when war is declared we should devote ourselves to calling out those resources and organizing those energies so that they can be used with the utmost effect in hastening the complete victory. The worst of all wars is a feeble war. War is too awful to be entered upon half-heartedly. If we fight at all, we must fight for all we are worth. It must be no weak, hesitating war. The most merciful war is that which is most vigorously waged and which comes most quickly to an end.

But there are, in my opinion, some things worse for a nation than war. National degeneracy is worse; national cowardice is worse. The division of our people into race groups, striving to direct the course of the United States in the interest of some other country when we should have but one allegiance, one hope, and one tradition—all these dangers have been gathering about us and darkening the horizon during the last three years. Whatever suffering and misery war may bring, it will at least sweep these foul things away. It will unify us into one nation.

This war is a war against barbarism, panoplied in all the devices for destruction of human life which science, beneficent science, can bring forth. We are resisting an effort to thrust mankind back to forms of government, to political creeds, and methods of conquest which we had hoped had disappeared forever from the world. We are fighting against a nation which, in the fashion of centuries ago, drags the inhabitants of conquered lands into slavery; which carries off women and girls for even worse purposes; which in its mad desire to conquer mankind and trample them under foot has stopped at no wrong, has regarded no treaty.

The work that we are called upon to do when we enter this war is to preserve the principles of human liberty, the principles of democracy, and the light of modern civilization; all that we most love, all that we hold dearer than life itself. We wish only to preserve our own peace and our own security, to uphold the great doctrine which

guards the American Hemisphere, and to see the disappearance of all wars or rumors of wars from the East, if any dangers there exist.

What we want most of all by this victory, which we shall help to win, is to secure the world's peace, based on freedom and democracy, a world not controlled by a Prussian military autocracy, but by the will of the free people of the earth. We shall achieve this result, and when we achieve it we shall be able to say that we have helped to confer a great blessing upon mankind, and that we have not fought in vain.

Senator Norris, in his opposition, said:

We are going into war upon command of gold. We are about to do the bidding of wealth's terrible mandate and make millions of our countrymen suffer and untold generations bear burdens and shed their life blood, all because we want to preserve our commercial right to deliver munitions to the belligerents. I feel that we are about to put the dollar sign on the American flag.

Senator Reed, Democrat, of Missouri, replied to Senator Norris by declaring that his charge that the war resolution was placing the dollar sign on the American flag was "almost treason." The assertion that the nation was going to war on the demand of gold was "an indictment of the President of the United States, an indictment of Congress, of the American people, and of the truth."

"It is not the truth!" shouted the Missouri Senator.

Opposition by La Follette

Senator La Follette of Wisconsin delivered the principal speech against the resolution. He read a number of telegrams reporting straw votes, postcard, and other polls in various communities in the Central West, where the sentiment was overwhelmingly against war. He asserted that, of 15,000 or 20,000 letters and telegrams he had received regarding his vote on the armed ship bill, 80 to 90 per cent. had approved his stand. He referred to the President's statement that Germany had violated her submarine pledges, and continued:

Her promise, so called, was conditional upon England being brought to obedience of international law. Was it quite fair to lay before the country the statement that Germany made an unconditional promise and had deliberately violated it?

It was England, not Germany, who refused to obey the Declaration of London, containing the most humane ideas of naval

warfare which could be framed by the civilized world up to that time. Keep that in mind.

If this is war upon all mankind, is it not peculiar that the United States is the only nation of all neutrals which regards it as necessary to declare war upon Germany? All have refused to join in a combination against Germany. Some may have a clearer view than we. This suspicion of a desire for war profits does not attach to them.

Senator La Follette said that the United States had not the confidence of the other American republics because of its war policies. He predicted that entrance of the United States would not shorten the conflict, "but will vastly extend it by drawing other nations in." It is idle, the Senator went on, to talk of a war on the German Government and not on the German people.

We are leagued, (he continued,) or are about to be, according to the President's speech, with the hereditary enemies of the German people. Words are not strong enough to protest against a combination with the Entente Allies which would have us indorse the violations of international law by Great Britain and her purpose to wreak vengeance on the German people. We do not know what is in the minds of those who made the compacts in which we are to share.

Reverting to the President's assertion that the German people were thrown into war without an opportunity to say anything about it, the Senator asked: "Will the supporters of this war bill have a vote on it before it goes into effect? Unless they do that, it ill becomes us to speak of Germany. Submit this question to the people. By a vote of ten to one they would register their declaration against war."

The German people, he asserted, were more solidly behind their Government than the people of the United States would be behind the President in waging war on Germany.

"The Espionage bill and the Military bill that have been drawn by the war machine in this country," he said, "are complete proof that those responsible know that it has not popular support. The armies, necessary to be raised to aid the Entente Allies, cannot be raised by voluntary enlistment."

Praising the character and services of German-Americans in this country, Senator La Follette said that they were

being "dogged" by Secret Service men. He denied that any one Government was responsible for the war, saying that it was caused by European secret diplomacy. He cited the Anglo-French Moroccan secret treaty as "the most reprehensible, dishonest, and perjured on record."

"England first began the ruthless naval warfare," he asserted, "by repudiating the declaration of London."

Senator Knox, Republican, of Pennsylvania, interrupted to suggest that England did not ratify the declaration. Senator La Follette replied that British representatives signed it, and Senator Stone said England had not actually rejected it.

"It has pleased those who have been conducting this campaign (for war) through the press to make a jumble of issues," Senator La Follette continued, "until now it is impossible to get an intelligent answer regarding the real issues. They say that Americans are being killed by German submarines. We haven't a leg to stand on in support of this war declaration."

That the United States did not protest more vigorously against the British mine field blockade was the Administration's great mistake, the Senator said, and the real and primary cause of an American war declaration. He added:

We have wallowed in the mire at the feet of Great Britain and submitted in silence to her dictation. Because we acquiesce we have a legal and moral responsibility to Germany. Thus we have been actively aiding her enemy in starving German women, children, and old men. Germany waited three long months for this Government to protest. In principle, therefore, Germany had the right to destroy, blindly, ships by submarines and mines, in her own blockade zone. Germany is only doing what England is doing. Germany has been patient with us, standing strictly on her right to be accorded the same treatment as England by us.

Reply of Senator Williams

Senator Williams of Mississippi, in replying to Senator La Follette, said:

The Senator from Wisconsin labored to establish an identity of purpose and action in the violations of our neutral rights by Great Britain and Germany. He proved that he did not know the difference between a prize court and a torpedo. Great Britain has drowned none of our citizens.

I am a little tired of utterances like that of the Senator from Wisconsin, denouncing the Entente Allies. He endeavors to twist the British lion's tail. Demagogues have been doing that ever since the Revolution, but it is a matter of history that most of the people of England were against the war on the colonies.

Which would you rather do, fight Germany now with France and Great Britain and Russia, or fight her alone later? You've got to do one or the other. I tell you that if Germany does win that fight on the Continent of Europe she will begin building and getting ready to whip us, unless the English fleet prevents it.

Referring to the Wisconsin Senator's statement that the United States had nothing to lose, no matter which side won the war, Senator Williams said:

Let's see. Have we no honor? No regard for the future sovereignty of our country? No regard for our flag? Is sentiment rot? Is patriotism rot? Is there nothing precious except money?

I'm getting tired of this talk that this is a Wall Street war. That's a lie. Wall Street did not sink the Lusitania, the Arabic, the Sussex, and these other ships. I'm tired of lies like that, and I think it is the duty of the American Congress and people to brand them as lies.

Senator Williams said that the resolution did not propose that the United States enter the European war, but that it go into an American war to protect American rights and for the sake of honor, justice, safety, liberty, and equality. Once at war, he added, the United States should stay until it became assured the houses of Hohenzollern and Hapsburg would no longer reign in Germany and Austria, and that the Turk would be forced back into Asia.

Debate in the House

The resolution declaring war was reported to the House of Representatives after its passage by the Senate on Thursday, April 5. In presenting the resolution for passage the Committee on Foreign Affairs submitted an exhaustive report, in which the American indictment against the German Government was reviewed. The full text of this report is printed on pages 214-222.

The resolution was discussed in the House from 10 A. M. Thursday until 3:12 A. M. Friday, when it was passed by a vote of 373 yeas and 50 nays, 9 not vot-

ing. Miss Rankin, the woman member of the House, voted "no" after being called three times; she prefaced her vote in a voice choked by emotion, with the words: "I want to stand by my country—but I cannot vote for war."

The first important speech against the resolution was made by Representative Cooper of Wisconsin of the Foreign Affairs Committee. He maintained that Germany had not violated her promise regarding submarines; that she specifically reserved the right to withdraw it unless the United States Government would induce Great Britain to modify the blockade regulations. He argued that Great Britain had violated American rights upon the seas, that America had not been neutral. He defended German militarism with the query:

What has overthrown Russia? The tremendous struggle of the Central Powers. Now, then, I ask you this question: If we were in the situation of the German people and had just across an imaginary boundary, say like the Rio Grande River, a country of 120,000,000 or 130,000,000 or 140,000,000 people, having the most absolute, tyrannical, corrupt despotism of modern times, with an army of 1,300,000, what would we have done to secure our own safety and how long before this would we have had universal military service?

He quoted from a speech of Lloyd George delivered in Queen's Hall, London, July 28, 1908, in which he justified Germany's military preparedness, and quoted Lloyd George as follows:

Here is Germany, in the middle of Europe, with France and Russia on either side, and with a combination of their armies greater than hers. Suppose we had here a possible combination which would lay us open to invasion—suppose Germany and France, or Germany and Russia, or Germany and Austria had fleets which in combination would be stronger than ours.

Would not we be frightened; would not we build; would not we arm? Of course we should. I want our friends, who think that because Germany is a little frightened she really means mischief to us, to remember that she is frightened for a reason which would frighten us under the same circumstances.

British Blockade Defended

Representative Harrison of Mississippi, in replying, said regarding England's blockade:

When she executed that order she said to the United States, "We have mined certain places in the North Sea, but if any of your

vessels wish to go through we will furnish you a diagram, so to speak; we will furnish you pilot boats, so that you may not run against the mines." Did Germany do that? No. Germany said, "Here is a zone 1,500 miles long and 1,100 miles wide your vessels cannot enter except once a week, and then only at a certain port and along a certain path, and your vessel shall be painted a certain color—like a barber's sign, so to speak." And then they said, so far as the Mediterranean is concerned, "You cannot enter it except in a strip of twenty miles wide." Can you not see the difference between the actions of Germany and the actions of England? A man who cannot is unable to see the difference between, as some one has said, a torpedo and a prize court.

England's prize courts have awarded hundreds of thousands of dollars for affecting the property rights of the citizens of this country. Their courts are open, and they have said, "We will try the cases coming before us, and award damages not upon the orders in council but upon international law." And on that principle hundreds of our citizens have collected the full market value of their cargoes taken. And yet men say that we ought to go to war against England for violating property rights and excuse Germany for destroying the lives of American citizens. By that argument you say to me I shall not be permitted to choose my assailant. If one comes into my home and steals my pocketknife, he can be prosecuted for petit larceny. The penalty will be light. But if he comes into my home and kills some one who is dear to me, the punishment will be death. * * *

For nearly three years we have tried every avenue of diplomacy commensurate with a nation's honor to avoid war. So intense has been our desire for peace that at home our Government has been criticised and abroad our patience and forbearance have been marveled at.

Indictment by Mr. Foss

Representative Foss of Illinois denounced Germany's attitude in these terms:

German belief in German power has fat-tened on the blood of innocents. She no longer seeks to hide behind her broken promise, but tells us she will sink on sight any ship within a certain zone, save one poor ship per week, and then only under conditions which, to accept, was to surrender each and all our dearly bought liberties.

At the same moment we caught her red-handed in the basest act of international treachery ever committed by a civilized nation. She offers as barter a part of our sovereign territory in exchange for an attack on us by two friendly nations—Mexico and Japan.

Now Germany has dropped her diplomatic mask and stands revealed in all her naked

savagery. She will now kill on sight; she has run amuck on the seas; she has now treacherously sought an alliance against our peace. Throughout all this we have remained neutral, and, as a reward for our neutrality, what have we received at the hands of William II.?

He has set the torch of the incendiary to our factories, our workshops, our ships, and our wharves.

He has laid the bomb of the assassin in our munition plants and in the holds of our ships.

He has sought to corrupt our manhood with a selfish dream of peace when there is no peace.

He has willfully butchered our citizens on the high seas.

He has destroyed our commerce.

He seeks to terrorize us with his devilish policy of frightfulness.

He has violated every canon of international decency and set at naught every solemn treaty and every precept of international law.

He has plunged the world into the maddest orgy of blood, rapine, and murder which history records.

He has intrigued against our peace at home and abroad.

He seeks to destroy our civilization. Patience is no longer a virtue, further endurance is cowardice, submission to Prussian demands is slavery.

Kitchin's Opposition Speech

Representative Kitchin of North Carolina, who is the Democratic floor leader, opposed the resolution. In his address he said:

Great Britain every day, every hour, for two years has violated American rights on the seas. We have persistently protested. She has denied us not only entrance into the ports of the Central Powers but has closed to us by force the ports of neutrals. She has unlawfully seized our ships and our cargoes. She has rifled our mails. She has declared a war zone sufficiently large to cover all the ports of her enemy. She made the entire North Sea a military area—strewed it with hidden mines and told the neutral nations of the world to stay out or be blown up. We protested. No American ships were sunk, no American life was destroyed, because we submitted and did not go in. We kept out of war. We sacrificed no honor. We surrendered permanently no essential rights. We knew that these acts of Great Britain, though in plain violation of international law and of our rights on the seas, were not aimed at us. They were directed at her enemy. They were inspired by military necessity. Rather than plunge this country into war, we were willing to forego for the time our rights. I approved that course then; I approve it now. Germany declared a war zone sufficiently large to cover the ports of her enemy. She infests it with submarines and warns the neu-

tral world to stay out, though in plain violation of our rights and of international law. We know that these acts are aimed not directly at us but intended to injure and cripple her enemy, with which she is in a death struggle.

We refuse to yield; we refuse to forego our rights for the time. We insist upon going in.

In my judgment, we could keep out of the war with Germany, as we kept out of the war with Great Britain, by keeping our ships and our citizens out of the war zone of Germany as we did out of the war zone of Great Britain. And we would sacrifice no more honor, surrender no more rights in the one case than in the other. But we are told that Germany has destroyed American lives while Great Britain destroyed only property. Great Britain destroyed no American lives, because this nation kept her ships and her citizens out of her war zone which she infested with hidden mines. But are we quite sure that the real reason for war with Germany is the destruction of lives as distinguished from property, that to avenge the killing of innocent Americans and to protect American lives war becomes a duty?

Mr. Kitchin argued that Mexicans had murdered American citizens, had invaded American territory, and committed acts of war against the United States; and that we had refrained from war on that occasion without sacrificing our honor. He continued:

Are we quite sure that in a war with Germany or Japan, if our fleet was bottled up, helpless, and our ships of commerce had been swept from the seas, all our ports closed by the enemy's fleet, imports of fuel and food and clothing for our people and ammunition for our soldiers were denied, with our very life trembling in the balance, we would not, in the last struggle for existence, strike our enemy with the only weapon of the sea remaining and in a manner violative of the international law? Would one contend that under the circumstances our submarine commanders should permit the landing at the ports of the enemy arms and ammunition with which to shoot down our brave American boys when they had it in their power to prevent it? Would we demand of our submarine commanders that they give the benefit of the doubt to questions of international law rather than to the safety of our country and the lives of our own soldiers?

There were more than fifty speeches delivered during the session.

The War Proclamation

The war resolution as passed by the two houses of Congress was signed by President Wilson at 1:18 P. M. Friday,

April 6, and by that act the United States and Germany became officially at war. At the same time the President issued a proclamation to the American people announcing the existence of a state of war, the text of which appears on Pages 198-200. Formal notice was at the same time flashed to every American war vessel, naval station, fort, and army post; also to American diplomatic and Consular representatives abroad. Orders were likewise at once issued by the Navy Department to mobilize the naval forces of the United States and all branches of the navy were placed upon a war footing.

Seizure of German Ships

The first act in recognition of a state of war was the seizure by the United States authorities of all German ships that had taken refuge in American ports at the commencement of the war. Preparations to this end were made by the Federal authorities at all ports, and when the news was flashed from Washington at dawn on Friday that the war resolution had been adopted by Congress a detachment of port officials accompanied by a detail of Federal troops instantly took possession of the vessels.

There were in all 91 German-owned vessels in American waters with a gross tonnage of 594,696; twenty-seven of them in the Harbor of New York, six at Boston, three at Baltimore, two at Wilmington, N. C.; two at Philadelphia, three at

San Francisco, two at Pensacola, two at New Orleans, two at Astoria, Ore.; eight at Honolulu, seventeen at Manila, three at Zamboango, and three at Cebu, Philippine Islands; one each at New London, Newport News, Savannah, Charleston, Jacksonville, Portland, Ore.; Seattle, Winslow, Wash.; Hilo, Hawaii; San Juan, P. R.; Pago Pago, Samoa. The seizures were made without incident except in one case, and the crews were interned at the various immigrant stations, where they were treated as newly arrived immigrants. A German gunboat at Manila, the Cormoran, was blown up by its officers before the Federal officials took possession, and five members of the crew perished; the remaining 353 men and officers then peacefully accepted internment. The vessels seized were valued at about \$100,000,000. It was found that the machinery had been disabled on each of the ships, except the Vaterland, the 54,000-ton German liner at New York. It was estimated that several weeks would be required to make repairs.

The Government announced that the ships were seized for the purpose of protecting them from further injury, and that until a decision could be reached as to their proper disposition Customs guards had been placed on board. A few days later a large numbers of machinists were placed on the ships by Government authorities, and the work of repairs was vigorously begun.

Report of House Committee on Foreign Affairs Reciting German Misdeeds

When the resolution declaring war was reported for passage in the House of Representatives on April 5, the Committee of Foreign Affairs submitted the following exhaustive report, reciting the long catalogue of unfriendly acts that would justify war on the part of the United States:

IT is with the deepest sense of responsibility of the momentous results which will follow the passage of this resolution that your committee reports it to the House, with the recommendation that it be passed.

The conduct of the Imperial German Government toward this Government, its citizens, and its interests has been so discourteous, unjust, cruel, barbarous, and so lacking in honesty and fair dealing that it has constituted a violation of the course of conduct which should obtain between friendly nations.

In addition to this, the German Government is actually making war upon the people and the commerce of this country, and leaves no course open to this Government but to accept its gage of battle, de-

clare that a state of war exists, and wage that war vigorously.

On the 31st day of January, 1917, notice was given by the Imperial German Government to this Government that after the following day—

Germany will meet the illegal measures of her enemies by forcibly preventing, in a zone around Great Britain, France, Italy, and in the Eastern Mediterranean, all navigation, that of neutrals included, from and to England and from and to France, &c. All ships met within that zone will be sunk.

Since that day seven American ships flying the American flag have been sunk and between twenty-five and thirty American lives have been lost as a result of the prosecution of the submarine warfare in accordance with the above declaration. This is war. War waged by the Imperial German Government upon this country and its people.

A brief review of some of the hostile and illegal acts of the German Government toward this Government and its officers and its people is herewith given.

Germany's Conduct at Sea

In the memorial of the Imperial German Government accompanying its proclamation of Feb. 4, 1915, in regard to submarine warfare, that Government declared: "The German Navy has received instructions to abstain from all violence against neutral vessels recognizable as such." In the note of the German Government dated Feb. 16, 1915, in reply to the American note of Feb. 10, it was declared that "It is very far indeed from the intention of the German Government * * * ever to destroy neutral lives and neutral property. * * * The commanders of German submarines have been instructed, as was already stated in the note of the 4th instant, to abstain from violence to American merchant ships when they are recognizable as such."

Nevertheless, the German Government proceeded to carry out its plans of submarine warfare and torpedoed the British passenger steamer Falaba on March 27, 1915, when one American life was lost, attacked the American steamer Cushing April 28 by airship, and made submarine attacks upon the American tank steamer Gulflight May 1, the British passenger steamer Lusitania May 7, when

114 American lives were lost, and the American steamer Nebraskan on May 25, in all of which over 125 citizens of the United States lost their lives, not to mention hundreds of noncombatants who were lost and hundreds of Americans and noncombatants whose lives were put in jeopardy.

The British mule boat Armenian was torpedoed on June 28, as a result of which twenty Americans are reported missing.

On July 8, 1915, in a note to Ambassador Gerard, arguing in defense of its method of warfare and particularly of its submarine commander in the Lusitania case, it is stated:

The Imperial Government therefore repeats the assurances that American ships will not be hindered in the prosecution of legitimate shipping and the lives of American citizens on neutral vessels shall not be placed in jeopardy.

In order to exclude any unforeseen dangers to American passenger steamers * * * the German submarines will be instructed to permit the free and safe passage of such passenger steamers when made recognizable by special markings and notified a reasonable time in advance.

Subsequently the following vessels carrying American citizens were attacked by submarines: British liner Orduna, July 9; Russian steamer Leo, July 9; American steamer Leelanaw, July 25; British passenger liner Arabic, Aug. 19; British mule ship Nicosian, Aug. 19; British steamer Hesperian, Sept. 4. In these attacks twenty-three Americans lost their lives, not to mention the large number whose lives were placed in jeopardy.

Following these events, conspicuous by their wantonness and violation of every rule of humanity and maritime warfare, the German Ambassador, by instructions from his Government, on Sept. 1 gave the following assurances to the Government of the United States:

Liners will not be sunk by our submarines without warning and without safety of the lives of noncombatants, provided that the liners do not try to escape or offer resistance.

On Sept. 9, in a reply as to the submarine attack on the Orduna, the German Government renewed these assurances in the following language:

The first attack on the Orduna by a torpedo

was not in accordance with the existing instructions, which provide that large passenger steamers are to be torpedoed only after previous warning and after the rescuing of passengers and crew. The failure to observe the instructions was based on an error which is at any rate comprehensible and the repetition of which appears to be out of the question, in view of the more explicit instructions issued in the meantime. Moreover, the commanders of the submarines have been reminded that it is their duty to exercise greater care and to observe carefully the orders issued.

The German Government could not more clearly have stated that liners or large passenger steamers would not be torpedoed except upon previous warning and after the passengers and crew had been put in places of safety.

On Nov. 29 the German Government states, in connection with the case of the American vessel *William P. Frye*:

The German naval forces will sink only such American vessels as are loaded with absolute contraband, when the preconditions provided by the Declaration of London are present. In this the German Government quite shares the view of the American Government that all possible care must be taken for the security of the crew and passengers of a vessel to be sunk. Consequently the persons found on board of a vessel may not be ordered into her lifeboats except when the general conditions—that is to say, the weather, the condition of the sea, and the neighborhood of the coasts—afford absolute certainty that the boats will reach the nearest port.

Following this accumulative series of assurances, however, there seems to have been no abatement in the rigor of submarine warfare, for attacks were made in the Mediterranean upon the American steamer *Communipaw* on Dec. 3, the American steamer *Petrolite* Dec. 5, the Japanese liner *Yasaka Maru* Dec. 21, and the passenger liner *Persia* Dec. 30. In the sinking of the *Persia* out of a total of some 500 passengers and crew only 165 were saved. Among those lost was an American Consul traveling to his post.

On Jan. 7, eight days after the sinking of the *Persia*, the German Government notified the Government of the United States through its Ambassador in Washington as follows:

1. German submarines in the Mediterranean had, from the beginning, orders to conduct cruiser warfare against enemy merchant vessels only in accordance with the general principles of international law, and in particular measures of reprisal, as applied in the war

zone around the British Isles, were to be excluded.

2. German submarines are therefore permitted to destroy enemy merchant vessels in the Mediterranean, i. e., passenger as well as freight ships as far as they do not try to escape or offer resistance—only after passengers and crews have been accorded safety.

German Promises Violated

Clearly the assurances of the German Government that neutral and enemy merchant vessels, passenger as well as freight ships, should not be destroyed except upon the passengers and crew being accorded safety stood as the official position of the Imperial German Government.

On Feb. 16, 1916, the German Ambassador communicated to the Department of State an expression of regret for the loss of American lives on the *Lusitania*, and proposed to pay a suitable indemnity. In the course of this note he said:

Germany has * * * limited her submarine warfare because of her long-standing friendship with the United States and because by the sinking of the *Lusitania*, which caused the death of citizens of the United States, the German retaliation affected neutrals, which was not the intention, as retaliation should be confined to enemy subjects.

On March 1, 1916, the unarmed French passenger steamer *Patria*, carrying a number of American citizens, was attacked without warning. On March 9 the Norwegian bark *Silius*, riding at anchor in Havre Roads, was torpedoed by an unseen submarine and one of the seven Americans on board was injured. On March 16 the Dutch passenger steamer *Tubantia* was sunk in the North Sea by a torpedo. On March 16 the British steamer *Berwindale* was torpedoed without warning off Bantry Island with four Americans on board. On March 24 the British unarmed steamer *Englishman* was, after a chase, torpedoed and sunk by the submarine *U-19*, as a result of which one American on board perished. On March 24 the unarmed French cross-Channel steamer *Sussex* was torpedoed without warning, several of the twenty-four American passengers being injured. On March 27 the unarmed British liner *Manchester Engineer* was sunk by an explosion without prior warning, with Americans on board, and on March 28 the British steamer *Eagle Point*, carrying a

Hotchkiss gun, which she did not use, was chased, overtaken, and sunk by a torpedo after the persons on board had taken to the boats.

The American note of Feb. 10, 1915, stated that should German vessels of war "destroy on the high seas an American vessel or the lives of American citizens it would be difficult for the Government of the United States to view the act in any other light than an indefensible violation of neutral rights which it would be very hard, indeed, to reconcile with the friendly relations so happily subsisting between the two Governments," and that if such a deplorable situation should arise, "the Government of the United States would be constrained to hold the Imperial Government to a strict accountability for such acts of their naval authorities."

In the American note of May 13, 1915, the Government stated:

The Imperial Government will not expect the Government of the United States to omit any word or act necessary to the performance of its sacred duty of maintaining the rights of the United States and its citizens and in safeguarding their free exercise and enjoyment.

In the note of July 21, 1915, the United States Government said that

Repetition by the commanders of German naval vessels of acts in contravention of those rights must be regarded by the Government of the United States, when they affect American citizens, as deliberately unfriendly.

In a communication of April 18, 1916, the American Government said:

If it is still the purpose of the Imperial Government to prosecute relentless and indiscriminate warfare against vessels of commerce by the use of submarines without regard to what the Government of the United States must consider the sacred and indisputable rules of international law and the universally recognized dictates of humanity, the Government of the United States is at last forced to the conclusion that there is but one course it can pursue. Unless the Imperial Government should not immediately declare and effect an abandonment of its present methods of submarine warfare against passenger and freight carrying vessels the Government of the United States can have no choice but to sever diplomatic relations with the German Empire altogether.

The German Government replied to this communication on May 4, 1916, giving definite assurances that new orders had been issued to the German naval

forces "in accordance with the general principles of visit and search and the destruction of merchant vessels recognized by international law." And this agreement was substantially complied with for many months, but finally, on Jan. 31, 1917, notice was given that after the following day

Germany will meet the illegal measures of her enemies by forcibly preventing in a zone around Great Britain, France, Italy, and in the Eastern Mediterranean all navigation, that of neutrals included, from and to England and from and to France, &c. All ships met within that zone will be sunk.

In view of this Government's warning of April 18, 1916, and the Imperial German Government's pledge of May 4 of the same year, the Government of the United States, on Feb. 3, 1917, stated to the Imperial German Government that

in view of this declaration, which withdraws suddenly and without prior intimation the solemn assurance given in the Imperial Government's note of May 4, 1916, this Government has no alternative consistent with the dignity and honor of the United States but to take the course which it explicitly announced in its note of April 18, 1916, it would take in the event that the Imperial Government did not declare and effect an abandonment of the methods of submarine warfare then employed and to which the Imperial Government now purposes again to resort.

The President has, therefore, directed me to announce to your Excellency that all diplomatic relations between the United States and the German Empire are severed, and that the American Ambassador at Berlin will be immediately withdrawn, and, in accordance with such announcement, to deliver to your Excellency your passports.

On Feb. 3 one American ship was sunk, and since that date six American ships flying the American flag have been torpedoed, with a loss of about thirteen American citizens. In addition, fifty or more foreign vessels of both belligerent and neutral nationality with Americans on board have been torpedoed, in most cases without warning, with a consequent loss of several American citizens.

Intrigues in the United States

Since the beginning of the war German officials in the United States have engaged in many improper activities in violation of the laws of the United States and of their obligations as officials in a neutral country. Count von Berinstorff, the German Ambassador, Captain von

Papen, Military Attaché of the embassy, Captain Boy-Ed, Naval Attaché, as well as various Consular officers and other officials, were involved in these activities, which were very widespread.

The following instances are chosen at random from the cases which have come to the knowledge of the Government:

I. By direct instructions received from the Foreign Office in Berlin the German Embassy in this country furnished funds and issued orders to the Indian Independence Committee of the Indian Nationalist Party in the United States. These instructions were usually conveyed to the committee by the military information bureau in New York, (von Igel,) or by the German Consulates in New York and San Francisco.

Dr. Chakrabarty, recently arrested in New York City, received, all in all, according to his own admission, some \$30,000 from von Igel. He claims that the greater portion of this money was used for defraying the expenses of the Indian revolutionary propaganda in this country and, as he says, for educational purposes. While this is in itself true, it is not all that was done by the revolutionists. They have sent representatives to the Far East to stir up trouble in India, and they have attempted to ship arms and ammunition to India. These expeditions have failed. The German Embassy also employed Ernest T. Euphrat to carry instructions and information between Berlin and Washington under an American passport.

II. Officers of interned German warships have violated their word of honor and escaped. In one instance the German Consul at Richmond furnished the money to purchase a boat to enable six warrant officers of the steamer Kronprinz Wilhelm to escape after breaking their parole.

III. Under the supervision of Captain von Papen and Wolf von Igel, Hans von Wedell and, subsequently, Carl Ruroede maintained a regular office for the procurement of fraudulent passports for German reservists. These operations were directed and financed in part by Captain von Papen and Wolf von Igel. Indictments were returned, Carl Ruroede sentenced to the penitentiary, and a num-

ber of German officers fined. Von Wedell escaped and has apparently been drowned at sea. Von Wedell's operations were also known to high officials in Germany. When von Wedell became suspicious that forgeries committed by him on a passport application had become known, he conferred with Captain von Papen and obtained money from him wherewith to make his escape.

IV. James J. F. Archibald, under cover of an American passport and in the pay of the German Government through Ambassador Bernstorff, carried dispatches for Ambassador Dumba and otherwise engaged in unneutral activities.

V. Albert O. Sander, Charles Wunnenberg, and others, German agents in this country, were engaged, among other activities, in sending spies to England, equipped with American passports, for the purpose of securing military information. Several such men have been sent. Sander and Wunnenberg have pleaded guilty to indictments brought against them in New York City, as has George Voux Bacon, one of the men sent abroad by them.

VI. American passports have been counterfeited and counterfeits found on German agents. Baron von Cupenberg, a German agent, when arrested abroad, bore a counterfeit of an American passport issued to Gustav C. Roeder; Irving Guy Ries received an American passport, went to Germany, where the police retained his passports for twenty-four hours. Later a German spy named Carl Paul Julius Hensel was arrested in London with a counterfeit of the Ries passport in his possession.

VII. Prominent officials of the Hamburg-American Line, who, under the direction of Captain Boy-Ed, endeavored to provide German warships at sea with coal and other supplies in violation of the statutes of the United States, have been tried and convicted and sentenced to the penitentiary. Some twelve or more vessels were involved in this plan.

VIII. Under the direction of Captain Boy-Ed and the German Consulate at San Francisco, and in violation of our law, the steamships Sacramento and Mazatlan carried supplies from San

Francisco to German war vessels. The Olsen and Mahoney, which was engaged in a similar enterprise, was detained. The money for these ventures was furnished by Captain Boy-Ed. Indictments have been returned in connection with these matters against a large number of persons.

IX. Werner Horn, a Lieutenant in the German reserve, was furnished funds by Captain Franz von Papen and sent, with dynamite, under orders to blow up the International Bridge at Vanceboro, Me. He was partially successful. He is now under indictment for the unlawful transportation of dynamite on passenger trains and is in jail awaiting trial following the dismissal of his appeal by the Supreme Court.

X. Captain von Papen furnished funds to Albert Kaltschmidt of Detroit, who is involved in a plot to blow up a factory at Walkerville, Canada, and the armory at Windsor, Canada.

Bomb Plots Against Ships

XI. Robert Fay, Walter Scholtz, and Paul Daeche have been convicted and sentenced to the penitentiary and three others are under indictment for conspiracy to prepare bombs and attach them to allied ships leaving New York Harbor. Fay, who was the principal in this scheme, was a German soldier. He testified that he received finances from a German secret agent in Brussels, and told Von Papen of his plans, who advised him that his device was not practicable, but that he should go ahead with it, and if he could make it work he would consider it.

XII. Under the direction of Captain von Papen and Wolf von Igel, Dr. Walter T. Scheele, Captain von Kleist, Captain Wolpert of the Atlas Steamship Company, and Captain Rode of the Hamburg-American Line manufactured incendiary bombs and placed them on board allied vessels. The shells in which the chemicals were placed were made on board the steamship *Friedrich der Grosse*. Scheele was furnished \$1,000 by von Igel wherewith to become a fugitive from justice.

XIII. Captain Franz Rintelen, a re-

serve officer in the German Navy, came to this country secretly for the purpose of preventing the exportation of munitions of war to the Allies and of getting to Germany needed supplies. He organized and financed Labor's National Peace Council in an effort to bring about an embargo on the shipment of munitions of war, tried to bring about strikes, &c.

XIV. Consul General Bopp, at San Francisco, Vice Consul General von Schaick, Baron George Wilhelm von Brincken, (an employe of the consulate,) Charles C. Crowley, and Mrs. Margaret W. Cornell (secret agents of the German Consulate at San Francisco) have been convicted of conspiracy to send agents into Canada to blow up railroad tunnels and bridges, and to wreck vessels sailing from Pacific Coast ports with war material for Russia and Japan.

XV. Paul Koenig, head of the secret-service work of the Hamburg-American Line, by direction of his superior officers, largely augmented his organization and under the direction of Von Papen, Boy-Ed, and Albert carried on secret work for the German Government. He secured and sent spies to Canada to gather information concerning the Welland Canal, the movements of Canadian troops to England, bribed an employe of a bank for information concerning shipments to the Allies, sent spies to Europe on American passports to secure military information, and was involved with Captain von Papen in plans to place bombs on ships of the Allies leaving New York Harbor, &c. Von Papen, Boy-Ed, and Albert had frequent conferences with Koenig in his office, at theirs, and at outside places. Koenig and certain of his associates are under indictment.

Welland Canal Plot

XVI. Captain von Papen, Captain Hans Tauscher, Wolf von Igel, and a number of German reservists organized an expedition to go into Canada, destroy the Welland Canal, and endeavor to terrorize Canadians in order to delay the sending of troops from Canada to Europe. Indictments have been returned

against these persons. Wolf von Igel furnished Fritzen, one of the conspirators in this case, money on which to flee from New York City. Fritzen is now in jail in New York City.

XVII. With money furnished by official German representatives in this country, a cargo of arms and ammunition was purchased and shipped on board the schooner Annie Larsen. Through the activities of German official representatives in this country and other Germans a number of Indians were procured to form an expedition to go on the steamship Maverick, meet the Annie Larsen, take over her cargo, and endeavor to bring about a revolution in India. This plan involved the sending of a German officer to drill Indian recruits and the entire plan was managed and directed by Captain von Papen, Captain Hans Tauscher, and other official German representatives in this country.

XVIII. Gustav Stahl, a German reservist, made an affidavit which he admitted was false, regarding the arming of the Lusitania, which affidavit was forwarded to the State Department by Ambassador von Bernstorff. He plead guilty to an indictment charging perjury, and was sentenced to the penitentiary. Koenig, herein mentioned, was active in securing this affidavit.

XIX. The German Embassy organized, directed, and financed the Hans Libau Employment Agency, through which extended efforts were made to induce employes of manufacturers engaged in supplying various kinds of material to the Allies to give up their positions in an effort to interfere with the output of such manufacturers. Von Papen indorsed this organization as a military measure, and it was hoped through its propaganda to cripple munition factories.

XX. The German Government has assisted financially a number of newspapers in this country in return for pro-German propaganda.

XXI. Many facts have been secured indicating that Germans have aided and encouraged financially and otherwise the activities of one or the other faction in Mexico, the purpose being to keep the

United States occupied along its borders and to prevent the exportation of munitions of war to the Allies; see, in this connection, the activities of Rintelen, Stallforth, Kopf, the German Consul at Chihuahua; Krum-Hellen, Felix Somerfeld, (Villa's representative at New York,) Carl Heynen, Gustav Steinberg, and many others.

Belgian Relief Ships Sunk

When the Commission for Relief in Belgium began its work in October, 1914, it received from the German authorities, through the various Governments concerned, definite written assurances that ships engaged in carrying cargoes for the relief of the civil population of Belgium and Northern France should be immune from attack. In order that there may be no room for attacks upon these ships through misunderstanding, each ship is given a safe conduct by the German diplomatic representative in the country from which it sails, and, in addition, bears conspicuously upon its sides markings which have been agreed upon with the German authorities; furthermore, similar markings are painted upon the decks of the ships in order that they may be readily recognized by airplanes.

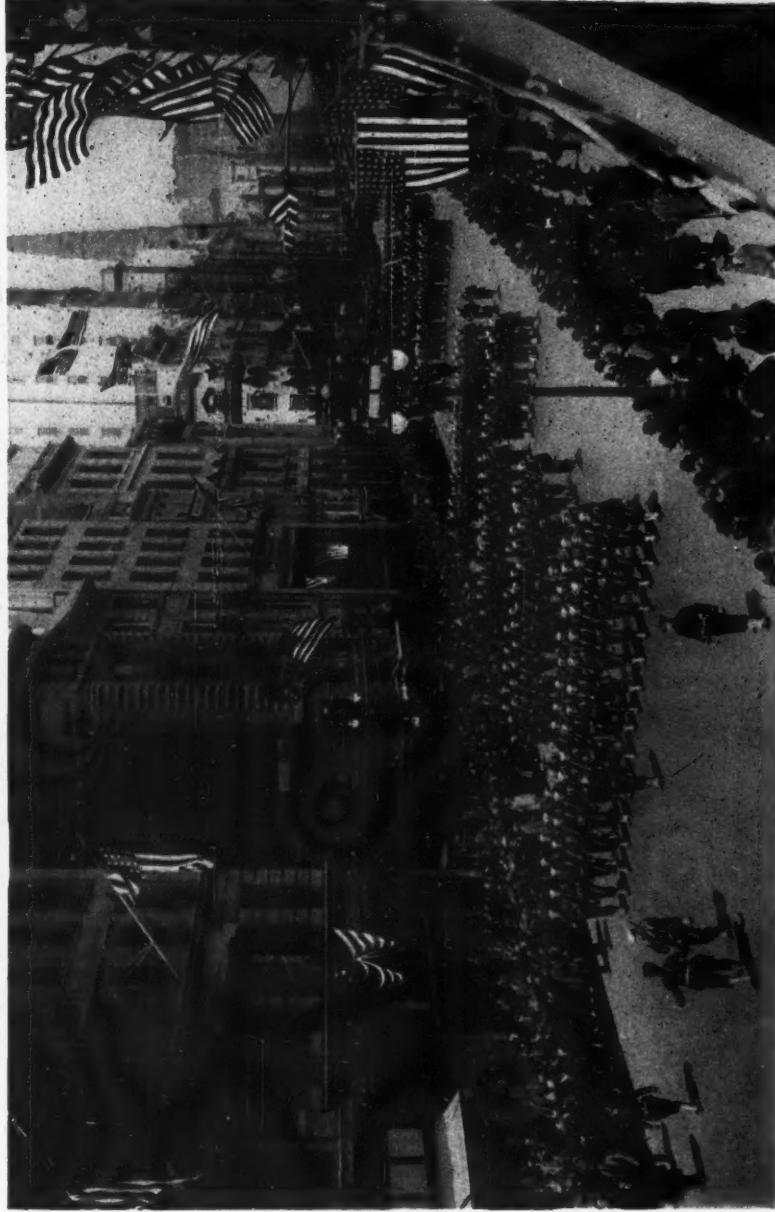
Upon the rupture of relations with Germany the commission was definitely assured by the German Government that its ships would be immune from attack by following certain prescribed courses and conforming to the arrangements previously made.

Despite these solemn assurances there have been several unwarranted attacks upon ships under charter to the commission.

On March 7 or 8 the Norwegian ship Storstad, carrying 10,000 tons of corn from Buenos Aires to Rotterdam for the commission was sunk in broad daylight by a German submarine despite the conspicuous markings of the commission which the submarine could not help observing. The Storstad was repeatedly shelled without warning and finally torpedoed.

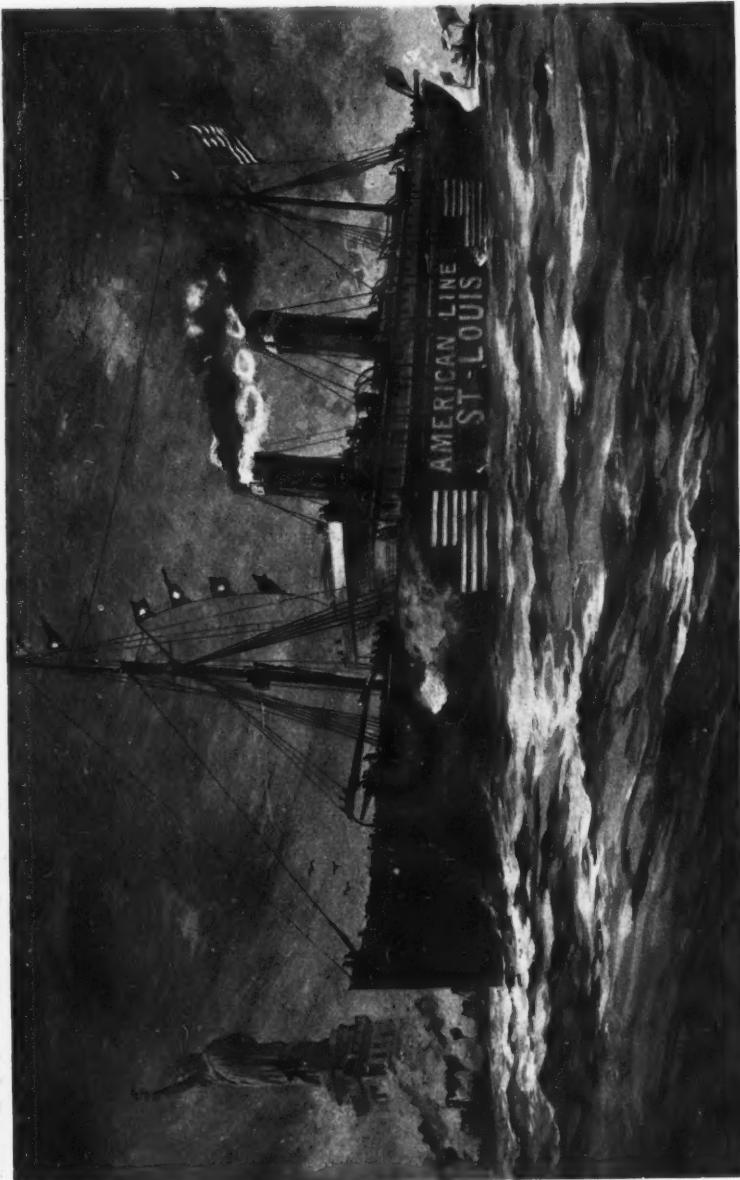
On March 19 the steamships Tunisie and Haelen, under charter to the com-

NAVAL MILITIA MARCHING DOWN FIFTH AVENUE



The First Battalion, New York Naval Militia, on Its Way to the Train to Begin Active Sea Service in the War

FIRST ARMED AMERICAN STEAMSHIP LEAVING NEW YORK



The Liner St. Louis, With Two Guns Forward and One Aft, Was the First American Merchant Vessel to Carry Arms Through the "Barred" Submarine Zone; She Sailed March 17, 1917.

(Drawing by M. J. Burns. © 1917 by New York Times Co.)

mission, proceeding to the United States under safe conducts and guarantees from the German Minister at The Hague and bearing conspicuous marking of the commission, were attacked without warning by a German submarine outside the danger zone, (56 degrees 15 minutes north, 5 degrees 32 minutes east.) The ships were not sunk, but on the Haelen seven men were killed, including the first and third officers; a port boat was sunk; a hole was made in the port bunker above the water line; and the ships sustained sundry damages to decks and engines.

Indignities to Americans

Various Consular officers have suffered indignities and humiliation at the hands of German frontier authorities. The following are illustrations:

Mr. Pike, Consul at St. Gall, Switzerland, on proceeding to his post with a passport duly indorsed by German officials in New York and Copenhagen, was on Nov. 26, 1916, subjected to great indignities at Warnemünde on the German frontier. Mr. Pike refused to submit to search of his person, the removal of his clothing, or the seizure of his official reports and papers of a private and confidential nature. He was therefore obliged to return to Copenhagen.

Mr. Murphy, the Consul General at Sofia, and his wife, provided with passports from the German legations at The Hague and Copenhagen, were on two occasions stripped and searched and subjected to great humiliation at the same frontier station. No consideration was given them because of their official position.

Such has been the behavior on the part of German officials notwithstanding that Consular officials hold positions of dignity and responsibility under their Government and that during the present war Germany has been placed under deep obligation to American Consular officers by their efforts in the protection of German interests.

The Yarrowdale Prisoners

On Jan. 19 Mr. Gerard telegraphed that the evening papers contained a report that the English steamer Yarrow-

dale had been brought to Swinemunde as prize with 469 prisoners on board taken from ships captured by German auxiliary cruisers; that among these prisoners were 103 neutrals; and that such of these as had been taken on board enemy ships and had accepted pay on such ships would be held as prisoners of war.

After repeated inquiries Mr. Gerard learned that there were among the Yarrowdale prisoners seventy-two men claiming American citizenship.

On Feb. 4 Mr. Gerard was informed by Count Montgelas of the Foreign Office that the Americans taken on the Yarrowdale would be released immediately on the ground that they could not have known at the time of sailing that it was Germany's intention to treat armed merchantmen as ships of war.

Despite this assurance, the prisoners were not released, but some time prior to Feb. 17 the German Minister for Foreign Affairs told the Spanish Ambassador that the American prisoners from the Yarrowdale would be liberated "in a very short time."

Upon receipt of this information a formal demand was made through the Spanish Ambassador at Berlin for the immediate release of these men. The message sent the Spanish Ambassador was as follows:

If Yarrowdale prisoners have not been released, please make formal demand in the name of the United States for their immediate release. If they are not promptly released and allowed to cross the frontier without further delay, please state to the Foreign Minister that this policy of the Imperial Government, if continued, apparently without the slightest justification, will oblige the Government of the United States to consider what measures it may be necessary to take in order to obtain satisfaction for the continued detention of these innocent American citizens.

On Feb. 25 the American Ambassador at Madrid was informed by the Spanish Foreign Office that the Yarrowdale prisoners had been released on the 16th inst. The foregoing statement appears to have been based on erroneous information. The men finally reached Zurich, Switzerland, on the afternoon of March 11.

Official reports now in the possession of the Department of State indicate that these American sailors were from the moment of their arrival in Germany, on Jan. 3, subjected to the most cruel and heartless treatment. Although the weather was very cold, they were given no suitable clothes, and many of them stood about for hours barefoot in the snow. The food supplied them was utterly inadequate. After one cup of coffee in the morning almost the only article of food given them was boiled frosted cabbage, with mush once a week and beans once a week. One member of the crew states that, without provocation, he was severely kicked in the abdomen by a German officer. He appears still to be suffering severely from this assault. Another sailor is still suffering from a wound caused by shrapnel fired by the Germans at an open boat in which he and his companions had taken refuge after the sinking of the *Georgic*.

All of the men stated that their treatment had been so inhuman that should a submarine be sighted in the course of their voyage home they would prefer to be drowned rather than have any further experience in German prison camps.

It is significant that the inhuman treatment accorded these American sailors occurred a month before the break in relations and while Germany was on every occasion professing the most cordial friendship for the United States.

Other Unfriendly Acts

After the suspension of diplomatic relations the German authorities cut off the telephone at the embassy at Berlin

and suppressed Mr. Gerard's communication by telegraph and post. Mr. Gerard was not even permitted to send to American Consular officers in Germany the instructions he had received for them from the Department of State. Neither was he allowed to receive his mail. Just before he left Berlin the telephonic communication at the embassy was restored and some telegrams and letters were delivered. No apologies were offered, however.

The Government of the United States is in possession of instructions addressed by the German Minister for Foreign Affairs to the German Minister to Mexico concerning a proposed alliance of Germany, Japan, and Mexico to make war on the United States. The text of this document is as follows:

Berlin, Jan. 19, 1917.

On the 1st of February we intend to begin submarine warfare unrestricted. In spite of this it is our intention to endeavor to keep neutral the United States of America.

If this attempt is not successful, we propose an alliance on the following basis with Mexico: That we shall make war together and together make peace. We shall give general financial support, and it is understood that Mexico is to reconquer the lost territory in New Mexico, Texas, and Arizona. The details are left to you for settlement.

You are instructed to inform the President of Mexico of the above in the greatest confidence as soon as it is certain there will be an outbreak of war with the United States, and suggest that the President of Mexico on his own initiative should communicate with Japan suggesting adherence at once to this plan; at the same time offer to mediate between Germany and Japan.

Please call to the attention of the President of Mexico that the employment of ruthless submarine warfare now promises to compel England to make peace in a few months.

(Signed) ZIMMERMANN.

Reception Accorded the President's War Message

PRESIDENT WILSON'S address to Congress in behalf of "a world safe for democracy," followed quickly by the action of Congress in declaring a state of war between the United States and Germany, created a profound sensation throughout the world. It was received by the nations composing

the Entente Alliance with thrilling enthusiasm, being conceded by all to be the pivotal point in the great war. In this country there was no tumult or hysteria, such as ordinarily accompanies a nation's entrance into war, but there was widespread, definite, and very earnest approval, coupled with ardent expressions of

loyalty from all sections and all classes. The apprehension felt in some quarters—so seriously regarded as to be scarcely articulated in the most intimate circles—that there might be disturbances and riots, perhaps civil revolt, among the millions of citizens and alien residents of Teutonic blood, was wholly dispelled within a few hours. There was not a ripple in any of the large German-American centres, not even a protest. The decision of Congress was accepted by the German language press of the United States as regrettable, but this expression in every case was accompanied by a fervent declaration of loyalty to this country. There were arrests in New York, Chicago, St. Louis, and some Western cities—less than one hundred of such cases among the 10,000,000 persons of Teutonic parentage—the arrests in every instance being based on specific charges of unneutral acts and plottings committed prior to the declaration of war.

European Congratulations

Telegrams of congratulation came to President Wilson from the heads of the Governments of the Entente nations, from their leading Ministers, from learned societies and universities; the Mayors of Paris, London, and other large cities in Great Britain, France, and Italy sent telegrams of felicitation to American cities. Neutral nations in some instances sent expressions of approval. Definite action was taken by Cuba, Panama, and China; the latter nation broke off relations with Germany following this action by the United States. The declaration of war by the United States was followed by similar action by the Republics of Cuba and Panama. Brazil broke off relations with Germany a few days later and on April 14 seized all German ships in Brazilian ports. The action of the various nations is given in fuller detail elsewhere.

President of France

President Poincaré of France sent the following cablegram to President Wilson on April 4:

At the moment when, under the generous inspiration of yourself, the great American

Republic, faithful to its ideals and its traditions, is coming forward to defend with the force of arms the cause of justice and of liberty, the people of France are filled with the deepest feelings of brotherly appreciation.

Permit me again to convey to you, Mr. President, in this solemn and grave hour, an assurance of the same sentiments of which I recently gave you evidence, sentiments which, under the present circumstances, have grown in depth and warmth.

I am confident that I voice the thought of all France in expressing to you and to the American Nation the joy and the pride which we feel today as our hearts once again beat in unison with yours.

This war would not have reached its final import had not the United States been led by the enemy himself to take part in it. To every impartial spirit it will be apparent, in the future more than ever in the past, that German imperialism, which desired, prepared, and declared this war, had conceived the mad dream of establishing its hegemony throughout the world. It has succeeded only in bringing about a revolt of the conscience of humanity.

In never-to-be-forgotten language you have made yourself, before the universe, the eloquent interpreter of outraged laws and a menaced civilization.

Honor to you, Mr. President, and to your noble country. I beg you to believe in my devoted friendship.

RAYMOND POINCARE.

To this President Wilson replied as follows:

In this trying hour, when the destinies of civilized mankind are in the balance, it has been a source of gratification and joy to me to receive your congratulations upon the step which my country has been constrained to take in opposition to the relentless policy and course of imperialistic Germany.

It is very delightful to us that France, who stood shoulder to shoulder with us of the Western world in our struggle for independence, should now give us such a welcome into the lists of battle as upholders of the freedom and rights of humanity.

We stand as partners of the noble democracies whose aims and acts make for the perpetuation of the rights and freedom of man and for the safeguarding of the true principles of human liberties. In the name of the American people, I salute you and your illustrious countrymen.

Address by Premier Ribot

Premier Ribot, in an address to the Senators of France, referring to the President's speech, said:

What particularly touches us is that the United States has always kept alive that friendship toward us which was sealed with our blood. We recognize with joy that the

bond of sympathy between the peoples is inspired by ideals which can be cultivated in the heart of democracy. The starry flag is going to float beside the tricolor. Our hands shall join and our hearts shall beat in unison.

President Wilson makes it plain to all that the conflict is truly one between the liberty of modern society and the spirit of the domination of military despotism. It is this which causes the President's message to stir our hearts to their depths as a message of deliverance to the whole world. The people who in the eighteenth century made a declaration of rights under the inspiration of the writings of our philosophers, the people who placed Washington and Lincoln among the foremost of its heroes, the people who in the last century liberated the slaves, is well worthy to give the world such an exalted example.

For us, after such death and ruin, such heroic suffering, the words of the President mean renewal of the sentiments which have animated and sustained us throughout this long trial. The powerful and decisive assistance which the United States brings us will be not material aid alone; it will be moral aid, above all, a veritable consolation. As we see the conscience of the whole world stirred in mighty protest against the atrocities of which we are victims, we feel that we are fighting not alone for ourselves and our allies, but for something immortal; that we are striving to establish a new order of things. And so our sacrifices have not been in vain. The blood poured out so generously by the sons of France has been shed in order to spread the ideals of liberty and justice which are necessary for the establishment of concord among nations.

In the name of all the country, the Government of the French Republic addresses to the Government and people of the United States an expression of its gratitude, and its most ardent greetings.

President Wilson's address was plastered on all official billboards throughout France by order of the War Cabinet. Celebrations were held in all parts of the French Republic, and at Paris many notable public functions, at which the American Ambassador was the guest of honor, were attended by the most distinguished men in literature and public life.

The American flag was displayed everywhere in Paris along with the tricolor, and on the fighting line in France the American aviators were allowed to display their colors for the first time. When the 1918 classes were called out the boys buoyantly responded, wearing the Stars and Stripes along with the French colors.

In the famous attack and capture of Vimy Ridge near Lens, by the Canadians early in April, an American was in the front ranks bearing an American flag, and fell wounded.

Message from British Premier

Premier Lloyd George on April 6 sent the following message to the American people:

America has at one bound become a world power in a sense she never was before. She waited until she found a cause worthy of her traditions. The American people held back until they were fully convinced that the fight was not a sordid scrimmage for power and possessions, but an unselfish struggle to overthrow a sinister conspiracy against human liberty and human rights.

Once that conviction was reached, the great Republic of the West has leaped into the arena, and she stands now side by side with the European democracies who, bruised and bleeding after three years of grim conflict, are still fighting the most savage foe that ever menaced the freedom of the world.

The glowing phrases of the President's noble deliverance illumine the horizon and make clearer than ever the goal we are striving to reach.

There are three phrases which will stand out forever in the story of this crusade. The first is that "The world must be safe for democracy." The next, "The menace to peace and freedom lies in the existence of autocratic Governments backed by organized force which is controlled wholly by their will and not by the will of their people," and the crowning phrase is that in which he declares that "A steadfast concert for peace can never be maintained except by the partnership of democratic nations."

These words represent the faith which inspires and sustains our people in the tremendous sacrifices they have made and are still making. They also believe that the unity and peace of mankind can only rest upon democracy, upon the right of those who submit to authority to have a voice in their own government; upon respect for the rights and liberties of nations both great and small, and upon the universal dominion of public right.

To all of these the Prussian military autocracy is an implacable foe.

The Imperial War Cabinet, representative of all the peoples of the British Empire, wish me on their behalf to recognize the chivalry and courage which call the people of the United States to dedicate the whole of their resources to the greatest cause that ever engaged human endeavor.

Words of Mr. Asquith

Former Premier Asquith, in an address to the American people, said:

The people of the United States have been

forced, as the United Kingdom was forced, into a struggle which, in neither case, was of our own seeking. They have realized as we have realized that the choice lay between peace with humiliation and war with honor. There was no middle course, for armed neutrality, as the President points out with irresistible cogency, affords no secure or powerful foothold.

The provocation offered in the two cases was different, but in both the challenge was one which neither nation could refuse to take up without the sacrifice of its self-respect and without a betrayal of the sacred trust which is imposed upon all free peoples, to uphold the defense of liberty and humanity. Never had the fundamental issues which are at stake been stated with more precision or with a greater elevation of thought and language than in the President's address.

The present German warfare, he points out, is a war against all nations, and the animating motives of the Allies, by whose side he invites his fellow-countrymen to range themselves, are not vindictiveness, but vindication—the vindication of those human rights which are the common interest and the natural bond of the whole family of civilized societies.

To this great purpose the American people now dedicate their lives and fortunes—as we have already dedicated ours—conscious that they are listening to and obeying one of those supreme calls which come but rarely in history, but which, when they come, sound in the ears of a community of free men with a note of imperious demand.

King George's Congratulations

King George V. on April 6 cabled President Wilson as follows:

I desire on behalf of the empire to offer my heartfelt congratulations to you on the entry of the United States of America into the war for the great ideals so nobly set forth in your speech to Congress. The moral not less than the material results of this notable declaration are incalculable, and civilization itself will owe much to the decision at which, in the greatest crisis of the world's history, the people of the great Republic have arrived.

GEORGE, R. I.

April 6, 1917.

In reply to the message President Wilson cabled:

To His Majesty George V., King and Emperor:

Your eloquent message comes to me at this critical moment of our national life as proof of the community of sentiment among the free peoples of the world, now striving to defend their ideals, to maintain the blessings of national independence, and to uphold the rights of humanity.

In the name of the American people and

the Government to which they look for guidance I thank you for your inspiring words.

WOODROW WILSON.

Washington, April 8.

Enthusiasm In Italy

At Rome there was great excitement and enormous multitudes went to the American Ambassador's home displaying the Stars and Stripes and singing "The Star-Spangled Banner." President Wilson received the following address from former Premier Luzzatti and sixty-seven other Italian Deputies at Rome:

Your message, with its ideal beauty and its political contents, brings us back to that dawn of civilization when the United States, inspired by Washington, gave to the oppressed peoples of Europe and of the two Americas the fruitful example of their redemption. Your message is not addressed to the United States alone but to all humanity, and awakens the noblest instincts among free nations. Your message is the hymn of freedom.

Italy, who, by toilsome slavery, learned to love a free and a national Government, and who, having experienced the bitterness of evil Governments, longs for the liberation of all peoples groaning under despotic rulers, thanks you and acclaims you and in you acclaims the great Republic of the United States.

The Belgian Premier and Minister of War, Charles De Broqueville, sent the following message by cable to President Wilson:

The Belgian Government decided in August, 1914, to make an unprecedented application to your Excellency. It was an act of faith and hope in the moral grandeur of a republic friendly to Belgium. Our people, small in number but strong in indomitable purpose, had foreseen that in the American people and in you, who are its noblest expression, it would find support for its honor and an avenging arm for its martyrdom. It has clearly distinguished between those groups that have directed the assault against the rights of peoples and those that have deemed it necessary to follow them, moved perhaps by a false understanding of solidarity that had been accepted for other objects than the gratuitous aggression of which civilization was the victim in 1914.

The Royal Government has contracted an unforgettable debt to the generosity of the United States of America. As in 1914, it counts upon her aid to those whose only fault was to have thought like free and honest men and acted rather as the servants of honor than as traders in it. The Belgian Government salutes with joy, emotion, and respectful admiration the decisive act that, through the intermediary of your Excellency, honors the man, the nation, and humanity.

Praise From Petrograd

At Petrograd the news evoked great enthusiasm and street manifestations occurred throughout the city. Professor Milukoff, the Foreign Minister, said: "The ideal side of the war is once more emphasized by the intervention of Amer-

ica. For me it becomes still clearer under these circumstances that without victory there can be no peace."

Michael Rodzianko, President of the Duma, said: "America's intervention on the side of the powers at war with Germany is the best guarantee of an early victory over the Germans."

Parliament Welcomes America's Action

RESOLUTIONS were adopted April 18 in the House of Lords and House of Commons, with only one dissenting vote in the Commons, (an Independent Irish Nationalist member who was angered at the Speaker's ruling,) as follows:

This House desires to express to the Government and people of the United States of America their profound appreciation of the action of their Government in joining the allied powers, and thus defending the high cause of freedom and rights of humanity against the gravest menace by which they ever have been faced.

Bonar Law, in his address, said:

"This is not only the greatest event, but, as I believe, the turning point of the war. The New World has been brought in, or has stepped in, to restore the balance in the Old.

"Being in, the United States has already shown that her enemies must beware of her, and despite the fact that the path immediately before us is more difficult than ever before, I venture to express the hope and belief that a change is coming—that the long night of sorrow and anguish which has desolated the world is drawing to a close.

"The United States," Mr. Bonar Law continued, "possesses resources of all kinds, resources which in the long run are decisive in war, to a greater extent, probably, than any other nation. The quality of her people was shown nearly sixty years ago in a struggle which, in its essentials, was not dissimilar to that which they have now entered. Since then the American people have shown qualities of resource, energy, and readiness to adapt themselves to new situations in the art of peace, and the same qualities will now be directed in no half-hearted way

and with equal success to the art of war. The entrance of the great Republic is a fitting pendant to the revolution which has brought the Russian people, whose courage and endurance we have so much admired and whose sufferings have been so terrible, into the circle of the freed nations of mankind.

"I read the other day a characteristic extract from a German newspaper, in which it was said America was going into the war for nothing. From their point of view the statement is true. America, like the British Empire—I wish to make that plain—is animated by no love of conquest, no greed for territory, no selfish ends. The aims and ideals to which President Wilson has given noble expression in his recent speech are our aims, our ideals also."

Mr. Asquith's Praise

Seconding Bonar Law's resolution, ex-Premier Asquith said:

"It is only right and fitting that this House, the chief representative body of the British Empire, should at the earliest possible opportunity give definite and emphatic expression to the feelings which throughout the length and breadth of the empire have grown day by day in volume and fervor since the memorable decision of the President and Congress of the United States.

"I doubt whether even now the world realizes the full significance of the step America has taken. I do not use language of flattery or exaggeration when I say it is one of the most disinterested acts in history.

"Nor were American interests at home or abroad directly imperiled, least of all that greatest interest of a democratic

community, the maintenance of domestic independence and liberty," Mr. Asquith continued. "What then has enabled the President—after waiting with the patience which Pitt described as the first virtue of statesmanship—to carry with him a united nation into the hazards and horrors of the greatest war in history? It was the constraining force of conscience and humanity.

"What was it that our kinsmen in America realized as the issue in this unexampled conflict? The very things which, if we are worthy of our best traditions, we are bound to indicate—essential conditions of free and honorable development of the nations of the world, humanity, respect for law, consideration for the weak and unprotected, chivalry toward mankind, observance of good faith—these things, which we used to regard as commonplaces of international decency, one after another have been flouted, menaced, trodden under foot as though they were effete superstitions of a bygone creed.

"There was never in the minds of any of us a fear that the moment the issue became apparent and unmistakable the voice of America would not be heard. She has now dedicated herself without hesitation or reserve, heart and soul and strength, to the greatest of causes, to which, stimulated and fortified by her comradeship, we here renew our fealty and devotion."

John Dillon extended greetings to the United States in the name of the Irish Nationalists.

"The Nationalists join most heartily in the welcome to the United States," Mr. Dillon said. "The full meaning of the entry of America into the struggle is difficult to describe. It is not like the entrance of the other allies, but has a more mighty significance to the whole civilized world.

"When the banner of the United States was unfurled every man of Irish blood in the United States was a loyal supporter of the President. I venture to prophesy that when the roll is called for battle the Irish will be there. They will outnumber, in proportion to their popula-

tion, all other races among the soldiers of the Republic.

"The presence of the United States at the peace conference is a sign of hope and an assurance of liberty. Her voice will be heard when the settlement comes, and Ireland knows that on that day she will have a firm and sure friend who will not desert Ireland. To America will fall the blessed task of basing peace upon liberty."

Earl Curzon's Tribute

In opening his speech on the resolution in the House of Lords, Earl Curzon said:

"The case of America entering the war is widely differentiated from that of any of the other allied countries. All of the latter had a direct personal interest in the war, but America's interest is secondary and remote. She had no ambition to gratify. Her people had a constitutional aversion to war and a rooted dislike to be involved in the secular ambitions or the quarrels of the Continent of Europe. If a nation with these hereditary instincts and traditions, after so long a period of hesitation, is yet compelled to draw the sword, there must be some great, overwhelming reason. Yes, there was a reason.

"The entry of America is a great event in moral history for the human race, and it stamps the character of the struggle in which we are engaged. America will not pause or stay until the peace of the world is built upon a sure foundation."

Viscount Bryce said:

"We recognize in the action of the American people their common devotion with ourselves to the same lofty ideals and their common loyalty to the time-honored traditions dating from our and their remote past. And we find their loyal attachment to these ideals the surest bond of unity between ourselves and our kinsfolk beyond the ocean."

April 19 was made American day in London. The Stars and Stripes were unfurled from the Victoria tower of the Houses of Parliament, being the first time in history that any but the British flag had flown there. The American colors were shown and worn everywhere.

Action by Latin-American Nations

Brazil Breaks With Germany

THE entrance of the United States into the war on the side of the Allies changed the entire status of affairs on this continent. The Western Hemisphere, which up to that time, with the exception of Canada, had held aloof from the conflict, was suddenly plunged into the maelstrom, and the various South and Central American States in turn declared themselves.

Brazil severed relations with Germany April 10. The rupture was precipitated by the sinking of the Brazilian steamship *Parana*, torpedoed off the port of Cherbourg, France, by a German submarine without warning. After the severance of relations great excitement prevailed throughout the country, and mass meetings in many cities demanded a declaration of war. All German ships in Brazilian waters, 46 in number, were seized by the Government. The vessels aggregate 240,770 tons, ranging from the Hamburg-American liner *Blücher*, 12,350 tons, formerly in the American transatlantic service, to a vessel of 1,103 tons.

At Rio de Janeiro there were 15 vessels; at Pernambuco, 12; Santos, 5; Bahia, 4; Paraiba, 3; Para, 2; Rio Grande, 2, and at Santa Catharina, Paranagua, and Maranham, 1 each.

Thirty-three of the vessels are more than 4,000 tons each.

Action of Argentina

On April 10 the Argentine Government issued a declaration announcing that it supported the position of the United States in reference to Germany. The declaration was made known to the public through bulletins posted throughout Buenos Aires, and caused a great sensation. Enthusiastic crowds marched through the streets, and the university students organized pro-ally demonstrations.

The declaration was followed by a period of the most intense excitement throughout the country. An influential part of the population were strongly

pacifist and pro-German, but the great majority were pro-American and probably. A serious riot occurred at Buenos Aires on April 14, and the German Consulate and several pro-German newspaper offices were attacked; there were several deaths before the mob was quelled. The situation became more acute when it was learned on the 13th that an Argentine sailing ship, *Monte Protegido*, had been sunk off the European coast by a German submarine, and fresh outbreaks occurred at Buenos Aires.

Chile and Bolivia

Chile issued an official statement on April 10 that she would remain neutral.

Bolivia severed relations with Germany on April 13, and the German Minister and his staff were handed their passports that day at La Paz. The note denounced the attacks of German submarines on neutral vessels as violations of international law and of The Hague conventions. It recalled that the Bolivian Minister to Berlin was on board the Holland-Lloyd liner *Tubantia* when that vessel was sunk in neutral waters a year ago. The note concluded:

"Your Excellency will understand that, although we regret the breach of diplomatic relations between Bolivia and the German Empire, such relations have become insupportable in existing circumstances. In consequence, your Excellency will find herewith passports for yourself and the members of your legation."

The note declared that German subjects and property would enjoy all liberties guaranteed by law, provided that they did not commit any act of delinquency, either collectively or as individuals.

The Paraguayan Government, in reply to the note of the United States, said that it recognized profoundly that Germany's military actions, which are opposed to the principles of the right of neutrals, forced the United States to resort to

arms to re-establish order and rehabilitate those rights.

The Paraguayan Government expressed "its most sincere sympathy with the Government and people of the United States."

In its reply to the United States the Uruguayan Government said that Uruguay did not recognize the right to wage unrestricted submarine warfare, "because it is an attempt against justice, violates neutral rights, and is an insult to humanity. Uruguay recognizes that the decision taken at Washington answers the situation arising from the action of Germany."

The note recalled that Uruguay in due course protested to Germany against her submarine methods, adding that the Government had decided to maintain neutrality, but recognized that the attitude of the United States was just, and expressed to it its sympathy and its sentiments of moral solidarity.

The Peruvian Government in its reply said that Peru deplored the fact that the United States had been compelled to take such action and expressed the hope of a speedy ending of the great war. No reference was made to the neutrality of Peru.

Attitude of Mexico

Mexico's attitude was announced by President Carranza in his inaugural address at Mexico City April 16. He declared that Mexico would maintain "strict and rigorous neutrality," but his message contained no friendly references to the United States; in fact, his attitude was critical and plaintive with reference to this country, and wholly lacking in warmth or any evidence of friendship. The impression it left at Washington was irritating and displeasing.

Costa Rica and Panama were the two Central American States that approved the action of the United States. Costa Rica announced that "it indorsed the course of President Wilson" and "was ready to prove it, if necessary."

Panama's War Declaration

The President of the Republic of Panama, Dr. Ramon Valdez, signed a proclamation April 7 committing Panama un-

reservedly to the assistance of the United States in the defense of the Canal. The President also canceled the exequaturs of all the German Consuls in Panama. The proclamation declares:

Our indisputable duty in this tremendous hour of history is of a common ally, whose interests and existence as well are linked indissolubly with the United States. As the situation creates dangers for our country, it is the duty of the Panaman people to co-operate with all the energies and resources they can command for the protection of the canal and to safeguard national territory.

The attitude of the people was foreseen and interpreted faithfully in a resolution unanimously approved by the National Assembly on Feb. 24, and confirmed by later laws, and the moment has arrived for the Executive to act in accordance with the declarations of the supreme body. I therefore declare that the Panaman Nation will lend emphatic co-operation to the United States against enemies who execute or attempt to execute hostile acts against the territory of the canal, or in any manner affect or tend to affect the common interests.

The Government will adopt adequate measures in accordance with the circumstances. I consider it the patriotic duty of all Panaman citizens to facilitate the military operations which the forces of the United States undertake within the limits of our country. Foreigners, resident or transient, will be obliged to submit to the conditions of this declaration.

It was announced that Germans resident in Panama would be interned if they give any evidence of being involved in plots.

The proclamation was issued after President Valdez had sent a message to President Wilson indorsing the American action in declaring a state of war with Germany "after the United States had given unequivocal proofs of its love of peace and had made efforts to save Western civilization from the horrors of war, and had borne with patience a long series of provocations as irritating as they have been unjustifiable."

Cuba's Prompt Action

President Menocal, on the day that the United States took action, sent a message to Congress asking permission to declare war, declaring that the debt Cuba owes to the United States as well as the principles of justice and humanity demanded that such action be taken.

An extraordinary session of Congress

was held the next afternoon when the following bill was presented:

Reasons of gratitude to the powerful American Nation impose upon us the duty to ally ourselves to it in its patriotic purpose to crush the militarism that has carried such disaster to the whole universe, and we ought not to waste a single moment in taking such action which will exalt us, offering everything that may be necessary to the Star and Stripes, seconded by our own lone star banner, to maintain not only in this continent, but also in the Old World, the practices of liberty, right, and justice.

Whatever effort Cuba shall make to assist the United States of America will be looked upon as the generous action of a grateful people and of a friend who can never forget the sacrifice and effort made by the United States to co-operate in our struggle for independence. Therefore the undersigned representatives present for the consideration of this legislative body this bill:

Article I.—The Executive is authorized to organize and place at the disposition of the United States of America a contingent of 10,000 men, to the end of aiding in its military purposes the said nation in the present European conflict.

Article II.—The Congress of the republic grants in accordance with the provisions of Paragraph 5 of Article XLVII. of the Constitution to Colonel José Estrames y Vega of the liberating army and Congressman Ofer of Havana and to other citizens of the republic who may enlist permission to absent themselves from the territory of the republic and serve in the army of Cuba, to be placed at the disposition of the War Department of the United States of America.

President Menocal in his message said:

Cuba cannot remain neutral in this supreme conflict because the declaration of neutrality would oblige her to treat all the belligerents equally, refusing them with equal rigor any access to her ports and imposing on them the same restrictions and prohibitions, which would be in the present case contrary to public sentiment, to the essence of the pacts and moral obligations, moral rather than legal, which bind us to the United States; and would result, lastly, because of our geographical location, in being the cause of innumerable conflicts, the consequences of which it is easy to predict for a friendly and allied nation, and which would prove an inexcusable weakness and condescension for the attitude of implacable aggression unconditionally proclaimed by the Imperial German Government against the rights of all neutral peoples and against the principles of humanity and justice, which constitute the highest note of modern civilization.

The Congress met on April 7 and the declaration of war was passed by both houses without a dissenting vote, amid scenes of gravity and intense feeling. The war resolution as passed follows:

Article I. Resolved, That from today a state of war is formally declared between the Republic of Cuba and the Imperial Government of Germany, and the President of the Republic is authorized and directed by this resolution to employ all the forces of the nation and the resources of our Government to make war against the Imperial German Government with the object of maintaining our rights, guarding our territory and providing for our security, prevent any acts which may be attempted against us, and defend the navigation of the seas, the liberty of commerce, and the rights of neutrals and international justice.

Article II. The President of the Republic is hereby authorized to use all the land and naval forces in the form he may deem necessary, using existing forces, reorganizing them, or creating new ones, and to dispose of the economic forces of the nation in any way he may deem necessary.

Article III. The President will give account to Congress of the measures adopted in fulfillment of this law, which will be in operation from the moment of its publication in the Official Gazette.

The President immediately signed the measure. On April 8 Count von Verdy du Vernois, the German Minister, received his passports. The German ships in Cuban waters were seized on the night of the 7th; all had been damaged.

On April 11 Speaker Clark laid before the United States Congress, amid applause, a message from Miguel Coyula, Speaker of the Cuban House of Representatives, regarding the Cuban declaration of war against Germany. It read:

The House of Representatives of the Republic of Cuba, in declaring that a state of war exists between this nation and the German Empire, resolved, all members rising to their feet and amid the greatest enthusiasm, to address a message of confraternity to that body announcing the pride felt by the people of Cuba in uniting their modest efforts to those of the great nation contending for the triumph of right and respect for the liberty of small nationalities.

The House also resolved to express the special gratification of the Cuban people in uniting their flag side by side to that of the glorious nation which in days of undying memory sacrificed the blood of her sons to help the people of Cuba to conquer their liberty and independence.

Mobilizing the Army and Navy

MANY weeks before the present crisis had reached the stage of war the United States Government was actively pushing all possible preliminaries for the event. On March 25 President Wilson issued an executive order increasing the enlisted strength of the United States Navy to 87,000 men, in accordance with the emergency authority conferred upon him by the naval service act of Aug. 29, 1916. The next day Secretary Daniels sent a telegram to 2,600 editors throughout the country, stating that new ships and ships in reserve were being fully commissioned as rapidly as possible, and asking that the public be urged to furnish the naval recruits imperatively needed to man these vessels.

On March 26 President Wilson signed an executive order increasing the authorized enlisted strength of the United States Marine Corps to 17,400 men, an increase of 2,419, the limit allowed under the emergency act.

At the Naval Academy 183 new Ensigns were rushed into the navy three months in advance of their time, and were graduated on March 29, at once receiving their assignments on various vessels.

Calling Navy Into Service

When the declaration of a state of war became operative on April 6 Secretary Daniels signed an order at 4:05 o'clock the same afternoon for the mobilization of the navy. One hundred code messages were sent by wireless and telegraph from the office of Admiral W. S. Benson, Chief of Naval Operations, within a few minutes after the signing of the order. The messages set in motion the machinery by which the navy went on a war basis with every ship and shore station, and by which the Naval Militia of all the States, as well as the Naval Reserves and the Coast Guard Service, passed into the control of the Navy Department.

There were about 584 officers and 7,933 enlisted men in the Naval Militia, a total force of 8,517. These assembled at design-

nated points and were assigned to ships to be used in the Coast Patrol Service or on other naval duty. All ships in active commission in the regular navy were ready for duty when the order came. But there were battleships in the reserve fleets, reserve destroyers, and other reserve units that had only nucleus crews, which were now to be fully manned and put into service. Other vessels which had been out of commission were assigned to active duty as rapidly as possible.

There were approximately 361 vessels of the navy completed and fit for service, including 12 first-line battleships, 25 second-line battleships, 9 armored cruisers, 24 other cruisers, 7 monitors, 50 destroyers, 16 coast torpedo vessels, 17 torpedo boats, 44 submarines, 8 tenders to torpedo boats, 28 gunboats, 4 transports, 4 supply ships, a hospital ship, 21 fuel ships, 14 converted yachts, 49 tugs, and 28 minor units. The mobilization order also called into active service about 70,000 enlisted men, as well as over 8,500 members of the Naval Militia, a considerable number of Naval Reserves, and the men in the Coast Guard Service. It put into the regular naval service all new units in process of being purchased as well as those which had been offered for the power boat patrol by yachtsmen and other patriotic citizens along with their volunteer crews.

The total number of men required for the proper mobilization of the navy as it stands is 99,809 regulars and 45,870 reserves. It was estimated that 73,817 regulars and 25,219 reserves were needed for the battleships, scouts, destroyers, submarines, mine force, and training ships. For the Coast Defense forces it was estimated that 10,633 regulars and 17,195 reserves were needed, and for the various shore stations 10,318 regulars and 2,080 reserves.

The order called out those retired officers who had been registered in the department as fit for duty in the event of war to the Naval Reserve force, Naval Militia, examining boards, and bureau

duties, where they in turn released officers on the active list, and enabled the latter to go to sea for fighting duty.

Naval Recruiting Campaign

When the mobilization order came to the navy it still lacked 35,000 men to bring it up to the full authorized strength of 87,000. Recruiting had been carried on in the last few weeks with exceptional energy, but the average daily gain was only about twenty-five men. After the declaration of a state of war the call became more urgent, and large posters on the highways and handbills stuck across the front of taxicabs and other vehicles re-echoed the appeal for men. An increase of enlistments followed at once.

At the end of the first week of April the Naval Reserve recruiting office in New York City was crowded daily, and the daily total of recruits in the country was more than 700. Enlistments for the navy and for the Marine Corps all continued to show marked gains. On April 17 the navy was enrolling nearly 1,000 men a day, and Secretary Daniels announced that he already had 71,696 of the 87,000 men thus far authorized.

Meanwhile the mobilization of a large fleet of "mosquito craft" to patrol the Atlantic Coast and fight U-boats if they invaded American waters was in progress under Secretary Daniels and Admiral Benson, Chief of Naval Operations. Many owners of private yachts donated the use of their craft and crews for this purpose, and other men of wealth began building submarine chasers of a kind that had proved successful in British waters.

More than fifty small boat builders submitted proposals on March 31 for the construction of chasers and patrol boats of the 110-foot and 50-foot types, indicating that the Navy Department would be able to get all the small boats it needed in a comparatively brief time. On that date the coast patrol fleet was organized on an official basis under the Government, and Captain Henry B. Wilson was detached from his post as commander of the superdreadnought Pennsylvania to take charge of the coast "mosquito fleet."

Radio Stations Seized

Seizure of all wireless stations in the United States and its possessions was ordered by President Wilson on April 6, and the enforcement of the order was delegated to the Secretary of the Navy. Accordingly the navy at once took possession of the radio system throughout the country, assuming control of all commercial stations that might be useful to the Government in war time, and suppressing and dismantling the rest, including thousands of amateur wireless plants.

Defensive war zones, guarded by patrol boats, were established around the whole coast line of the United States through an executive order issued by President Wilson on April 5. To prevent surprise attacks against New York and other coast points by German submarines or raiders, this order created a series of local barred zones extending from two to ten miles from the larger harbors in American waters all the way from Maine to California and the Philippine Islands. All vessels are barred from entering these harbors at night, and entrance or exit in daytime must be in accordance with certain rules of pilotage and other matters which the patrol boats are under orders to enforce. The ports at both ends of the Panama Canal are closed each night under the same order.

Contracts for the construction of twenty-four destroyers of thirty-five-knot speed were awarded by the Navy Department on March 24. Ten will be built at the Union Iron Works, San Francisco; six by William Cramp & Sons, Philadelphia, and eight by the Fore River Shipbuilding Company, Quincy, Mass. The contracts will be paid on the basis of cost plus 10 per cent. profit. The average cost will be in the neighborhood of \$1,400,000 for each vessel. The Navy Department awarded the contracts on the day the bids were opened, and Secretary Daniels stated that he was ready to award similar ones for fifty destroyers, all urgently needed, and to pay for them out of the \$115,000,000 emergency fund; but the shipbuilding plants of the country were so overcrowded with other naval work that only three were able to do any-

thing in that direction at the present time. Of the twenty-four destroyers in question fifteen belong to the regular 1917 program and nine to the emergency program. Including these new orders the navy now has under construction a total of fifty-two destroyers, eight of which were authorized in 1914-15 and twenty in 1916.

Secretary Daniels announced on April 11 that Charleston, W. Va., had been selected as the site for the Government armor plate plant, for the construction of which Congress appropriated \$11,000,000.

National Guard Mobilized

The preliminary steps toward mobilizing the National Guard also were well under way before the assembling of Congress in special session. The War Department issued orders on March 25 calling out fourteen National Guard units "for police purposes" in New York, Massachusetts, Vermont, Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, besides the District of Columbia. They were assigned to protect railways, bridges, water systems, and other strategic points. As an example of the promptness with which these State units got into active service it may be noted that every man of the Seventy-first New York Infantry Regiment left New York City under secret orders on April 1.

On March 26 President Wilson called out twenty additional regiments and five separate battalions of National Guard units in eighteen different States, from Ohio to the Pacific Coast. The following day he suspended the muster out of the 22,000 National Guardsmen that still remained in the Federal service from the Mexican border mobilization. Seven more regiments were called into service in the next two days, and by the beginning of April the total under arms was more than 60,000, or over one-third of the 150,000 men in all the National Guard organizations in the country. Then a temporary halt was called, owing to inability to furnish supplies as fast as the men were mustered in.

It was announced that twenty-six training camps for the military training

of civilians would be maintained by the War Department in various parts of the country during the Summer months, with facilities for drilling 25,000 men.

State Governments responded generally to the needs of the hour. New York promptly appropriated \$1,000,000 for defense, Massachusetts the same, New Hampshire \$500,000, and many other States similar amounts. Mobilization of National Guard units throughout New England was especially prompt and rapid. College men in all parts of the country organized student regiments, and in many cases a majority of the whole undergraduate community began drilling. Home defense leagues in cities and towns sprang up from Maine to California, and obtained professional military drill; in New York City the body of this nature created by Police Commissioner Woods numbered nearly 10,000 men, the equivalent of a United States Army division, with a full military organization and a large degree of effectiveness. Mayor Mitchel of New York City organized a Committee on National Defense, under whose leadership nearly all the States of the Union joined in making April 19—the anniversary of the battle of Lexington—a "Wake Up, America!" day.

Patriotic enthusiasm was everywhere in evidence, yet enlistments in the regular army continued to come very slowly. Men of military age awaited the action of Congress, which was in process of determining whether to depend once more upon the volunteer system or to enact a compulsory service law. President Wilson and the Army General Staff strongly favored universal compulsory service for young men, and two bills embodying such a system were introduced in Congress, but they met considerable opposition from the outset. On April 18 the House Military Committee, by a vote of 13 to 8, finally agreed to report the Army General Staff bill with an amendment authorizing the President first to try the volunteer system for raising 500,000 men, and then to use the selective draft if the volunteer method proved unsuccessful. The matter rests there at the present writing. Meanwhile Secretary Baker has announced that men are en-

listing in the regular army at the average rate of 1,434 a day.

Many large banks and commercial houses have undertaken to keep up the salaries of National Guardsmen recruited

from among their employees, as was done at the time of the call to the Mexican border, when one large telephone company alone paid \$284,000 to absent employees.

Organizing for Economic Defense

A NATION-WIDE system of economic war activities developed during the month, nearly all centring about the Council of National Defense, a body consisting officially of the members of the President's Cabinet and its civilian Advisory Commission, a group of picked business men and leaders of industries. The members of the Advisory Commission are: Grosvenor B. Clarkson, Secretary; Julius Rosenwald, Chairman of Committee on Supplies; Bernard M. Baruch, in charge of raw materials; Daniel Willard, transportation; Dr. F. H. Martin, medicine and sanitation; Dr. Hollis Godfrey, science and research; Howard Coffin, munitions, and W. S. Gifford, Director of the Council. Each is working through a board of experts to organize the war activities in his department. Many of these boards were created in April.

The important work of the Food Board was placed under the management of Herbert C. Hoover, the executive head of the Belgian Relief Commission. The task assigned to the Food Board is that of coping with the problems of food shortage, distribution, and waste; price control, the mobilization of the agricultural resources of the country, and the formulating of all necessary measures to keep up the stream of American food supplies to the Allies.

Presidents of the leading railroads of the country met at Washington on April 11 at the call of the Council of Defense and named a board of five men to direct the operations of American railways throughout the war, with Fairfax Harrison of the Southern Railway as Chairman and Daniel Willard, President of the Baltimore & Ohio and Chairman of the Defense Council's Advisory Commission, as an ex-officio member.

The creation of a General Munitions

Board was announced on April 9, headed by Frank A. Scott, a Cleveland manufacturer. This board is charged with supplying the army and navy with munitions and equipment. One of its chief functions will be to decide between the country's military and industrial needs when recruiting invades the factories. Twenty men, fifteen of them army or navy officers, make up the board.

In like manner an Economy Board was organized to mobilize the commercial interests of the country and attend to the equitable distribution of commodities in war time and to keep prices down. Important pioneer work in the direction of economy for the Government was achieved by one of the members of the Advisory Commission, Bernard M. Baruch, who, as Chairman of the Committee on Raw Materials, arranged to get copper, steel, and other metals for the Government at about half the market price, thus saving the nation many millions. The insurance interests of the country placed their valuable records at the service of the Government and laid plans to prevent the destruction of grain and cotton by incendiary fires. A General Medical Board of the Council of National Defense was organized on April 17 by leading physicians from all parts of the country, with Dr. Franklin Martin of Chicago as Chairman, and a score of eminent physicians as members of the Executive Committee, to mobilize the nation's medical resources during the war.

General Goethals's New Task

The Federal Shipping Board, which embodies the Administration's program for building a vast fleet of wooden cargo ships to transport supplies to the Allies and thus defeat the German submarine

campaign, was organized as a \$50,000,000 corporation on April 16. Its avowed purpose is to construct 1,000 ships of 3,000 to 5,000 tons burden within the shortest possible time. Major Gen. George W. Goethals, the engineer who built the Panama Canal, was made General Manager of the enterprise. Congress has authorized the use of \$50,000,000 for the work of this board. Chairman Denman announced that contracts had already been let, and that, barring unforeseen obstacles, by October the shipyards on the Atlantic and Pacific would be turning out the new vessels at the rate of two or three a day, to be leased to private shipping concerns.

Treatment of Germans

The history of America's entrance into the world war would be incomplete without reference to the attitude of the United States Government toward the unnaturalized and naturalized German citizens in this country, the former having become alien enemies by the declaration of war. The war proclamation of President Wilson was followed by proclamations to the same effect by the Mayors of all American cities. Typical of the spirit of these was the following by the Mayor of New York:

TO THE CITIZENS OF NEW YORK

Upon just grounds and after long and patient forbearance, the President and the Congress of the United States have declared that by the act of the autocratic Government which rules in the German Empire war exists between the two countries, and the free people of America are about entering into the great world conflict. Millions of the people of this city were born in the countries engaged in this great war. No part of the earth is without its representatives here.

I enjoin upon you all that you honor the liberty which so many of you have sought in this land and the free self-government of the American democracy, in which we all find our opportunity and individual freedom, by exercising kindly consideration, self-control, and respect to each other and to all others who dwell within our limits; that you, one and all, aid in the preservation of order and in the exercise of calm and deliberate judgment in this time of stress and tension.

There will be some exceptional cases of malign influence and malicious purpose among you, and as to them I advise you all that full and timely preparation has been made adequate to the exigency which exists

for the maintenance of order throughout the City of New York, and for the warning of the ill-disposed I quote the statute of the United States, which is applicable to all residents enjoying the protection of our laws whether they be citizens or not:

Whoever owing allegiance to the United States levies war against them or adheres to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort within the United States or elsewhere, is guilty of treason.

The punishment prescribed by law for the crime of treason is death or, at the discretion of the court, imprisonment for not less than five years and a fine of not less than \$10,000. All officers of the police have been especially instructed to give their prompt and efficacious attention to the enforcement of this law.

JOHN PURROY MITCHEL,
Mayor.

Official proclamations were issued forbidding any "alien enemy" from remaining or residing "within half a mile of any Governmental fort, factory, reservation, base of supplies, or any land used for war purposes." The enforcement of this order, however, was left to the discretion of the United States Marshals, and forbearance was shown. The enemy aliens living or employed about the military points around New York were given six weeks to find new locations, and exceptions to the rule were made where bond could be furnished. Hoboken, N. J., which is almost entirely populated by Germans, being the site of the chief piers of the two great German steamship lines, the Hamburg-American and North German Lloyd, was placed under military guard in the pier districts on April 19; the Mayor at the same time issued a proclamation announcing that aliens residing within half a mile of the piers would not be disturbed if they obeyed the laws.

Nowhere in the country were there reports of any disturbances among the Germans during the first two weeks following the declaration of war, and their general attitude was one of unswerving loyalty to the United States. The 750 officers and men of the German Navy who sought refuge in American waters on the cruisers *Kronprinz Wilhelm* and *Prinz Eitel Friedrich* were taken to Georgia on special trains March 27 and placed for safe keeping in stockades at Fort McPherson and Fort Oglethorpe, under guard of the Seventeenth Infantry.

The men from the Wilhelm, numbering more than 400, were assigned to Fort McPherson and those from the Eitel Friedrich to Fort Oglethorpe.

The men were housed in barracks surrounded by a barbed-wire stockade. They

were removed from the League Island Navy Yard at Philadelphia, as their presence at the country's chief navy yard during the tense days preceding our declaration of war was regarded as perilous.

Dr. Zimmermann's Defense of His Mexican Plan

THE German Secretary of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Alfred Zimmermann, made a second statement on March 29 in attempted defense of his unsuccessful plan to create a German-Mexican-Japanese alliance against the United States. His act was subjected to criticism by Hugo Haase, leader of the Socialist minority, who remarked in the Reichstag that the affair had aggravated the situation in America. According to an Amsterdam Reuter dispatch, Dr. Zimmermann replied:

I wrote no letter to General Carranza. I was not so naïve. I merely addressed, by a route that appeared to me to be a safe one, instructions to our representative in Mexico. It is being investigated how these instructions fell into the hands of the American authorities. I instructed the Minister to Mexico, in the event of war with the United States, to propose a German alliance to Mexico, and simultaneously to suggest that Japan join the alliance. I declared expressly that, despite the submarine war, we hoped that America would maintain neutrality.

My instructions were to be carried out only after the United States declared war and a state of war supervened. I believe the instructions were absolutely loyal as regards the United States.

General Carranza would have heard nothing of it up to the present if the United States had not published the instructions which came into its hands in a way which was not unobjectionable. Our behavior contrasts considerably with the behavior of the Washington Government.

President Wilson after our note of Jan. 31, 1917, which avoided all aggressiveness in tone, deemed it proper immediately to break off relations with extraordinary roughness. Our Ambassador no longer had the opportunity to explain or elucidate our attitude orally. The United States Government thus declined to negotiate with us. On the other hand, it addressed itself immediately to all the neutral powers to induce them to join the United States and break with us.

Every unprejudiced person must see in

this the hostile attitude of the American Government, which seemed to consider it right, before being at war with us, to set the entire world against us. It cannot deny us the right to seek allies when it has itself practically declared war on us.

Herr Haase says that it caused great indignation in America. Of course, in the first instance, the affair was employed as an incitement against us. But the storm abated slowly and the calm and sensible politicians, and also the great mass of the American people, saw that there was nothing to object to in these instructions in themselves. I refer especially to the statements of Senator Underwood. Even at times newspapers felt obliged to admit regretfully that not so very much had been made out of this affair.

The Government was reproached for thinking just of Mexico and Japan. First of all, Mexico was a neighboring State to America. If we wanted allies against America, Mexico would be the first to come into consideration. The relations between Mexico and ourselves since the time of Porfirio Diaz have been extremely friendly and trustful. The Mexicans, moreover, are known as good and efficient soldiers.

It can hardly be said that the relations between the United States and Mexico had been friendly and trustful.

But the world knows that antagonism exists between America and Japan. I maintain that these antagonisms are stronger than those which, despite the war, exist between Germany and Japan.

When I also wished to persuade Carranza that Japan should join the alliance there was nothing extraordinary in this. The relations between Japan and Mexico are long existent. The Mexicans and Japanese are of a like race and good relations exist between both countries.

When, further, the Entente press affirms that it is shameless to take away allies, such reproach must have a peculiar effect coming from powers who, like our enemies, made no scruple in taking away from us two powers and peoples with whom we were bound by treaties for more than thirty years. The powers who desire to make pliant an old European country of culture like Greece by unparalleled and violent means cannot raise such a reproach against us.

THE PURCHASE OF THE DANISH WEST INDIES



Secretary Lansing Is Handing a United States Treasury Warrant for \$25,000,000 to Constantin Brun, the Danish Minister. In the Picture, Left to Right: Secretary Daniels, Rear Admiral James H. Oliver, Governor General of the Islands; Mr. Brun, Secretary Lansing, Secretary McAdoo

(© Harris & Ewing)

TAKING FORMAL POSSESSION OF THE VIRGIN ISLANDS



American Sailors From the U. S. S. Hancock and Olympia in Front of the Government Buildings at
St. Thomas for Ceremonies of Formal Transfer of Danish West Indies

(Photo Central News Service)

When I thought of this alliance with Mexico and Japan I allowed myself to be guided by the consideration that our brave troops already have to fight against a superior force of enemies, and my duty is, as far as possible, to keep further enemies away

from them. That Mexico and Japan suited that purpose even Herr Haase will not deny.

Thus, I considered it a patriotic duty to release those instructions, and I hold to the standpoint that I acted rightly.

Austria-Hungary Breaks With United States

ON April 8 the Government of Austria-Hungary severed diplomatic relations with the Government of the United States. Baron Erich Zwiedinek, who had been Chargé d'Affaires of the Austrian Embassy ever since the recall of Dr. Dumba, former Ambassador, called at the State Department and demanded passports for himself, all his embassy staff, including Ambassador-designate Tarnowski, and all Austrian Consular officers in the United States and its possessions.

As soon as the announcement of the break was received by the Administration orders were given for taking possession of the Austrian merchant vessels that had been self-interned in this country. Secretary Lansing said that this was done as a precautionary measure. There were fourteen ships with a gross tonnage of 67,807. The largest was the *Martha Washington*, 8,312 gross tons, at New York, three others were self-interned at New York, one at Boston, three at New Orleans, one at Pensacola, two at Galveston, one at Newport News, one at Phil-

adelphia, and one at Tampa. The machinery in most of them had been damaged.

The following was the official note handed to the American Chargé d'Affaires at Vienna in the absence of Ambassador Penfield, who had left for America a few days previously:

Since the United States of America has declared that a state of war exists between it and the Imperial German Government, Austria-Hungary, as an ally of the German Empire, has decided to break off diplomatic relations with the United States, and the Imperial and Royal Embassy at Washington has been instructed to inform the Department of State to that effect.

While regretting under these circumstances to see a termination of the personal relations which he has had the honor to hold with the Chargé d'Affaires of the United States of America, the undersigned does not fail to place at the former's disposal herewith the passport for the departure from Austria-Hungary of himself and the other members of the embassy.

At the same time the undersigned avails himself of the opportunity to renew to the Chargé d'Affaires the expression of his most perfect consideration.

(Signed) CZERNIN.

Belgian Relief Work Transferred

BRAND WHITLOCK, the American Minister to Belgium, was ordered to withdraw from Belgian soil by President Wilson on March 24; the President also ordered the departure of all American Consular officers. The withdrawal of the American members of the Belgian Relief Commission, who had been directing the feeding of several millions of destitute Belgian and French civilians, also was necessitated by the war situation. The work of these Americans was taken up by Dutch citizens under direction of the Netherlands Government. Herbert C.

Hoover, the head of the relief commission, continued to direct the work from Rotterdam, but after the American declaration of war it was understood that he would return to America to assume the position of Food Director. In the official announcement of the withdrawal the State Department at Washington very bluntly and sharply put the blame on the Germans, as the following extract from the official statement of March 24 shows:

"Immediately after the break in relations the German authorities in Brussels withdrew from Mr. Whitlock the diplo-

matic privileges and immunities which he had up to that time enjoyed. His courier service to The Hague was stopped. He was denied the privilege of communicating with the Department of State in cipher, and later even in plain language. The members of the relief commission were placed under great restrictions of movements and communications, which hampered the efficient performance of their task.

"In spite of all these difficulties, the Government and the commission were determined to keep the work going till the last possible moment. Now, however, a more serious difficulty has arisen. In the course of the last ten days several of the commission's ships have been attacked without warning by German submarines, in flagrant violation of the solemn engagements of the German Government. Protests addressed by this Government to Berlin through the intermediary of the Spanish Government have not been answered.

"The German Government's disregard

of its written undertakings causes grave concern as to the future of the relief work. In any event, it is felt that the American staff of the commission can no longer serve with advantage in Belgium. Although a verbal promise has been made that the members of the commission would be permitted to leave if they desire, the German Government's observance of its other undertakings has not been such that the department would feel warranted in accepting responsibility for leaving these American citizens in German occupied territory."

Four Belgian relief ships loaded with food bound from America for Rotterdam were sunk by German submarines between March 25 and April 10, and it was feared that all relief measures must be abandoned. On April 17, however, it was announced that eight loaded relief ships had reached Rotterdam between April 6 and 15, indicating that the Germans had concluded to allow the relief service to continue.

Vessels Sunk by Submarines

THE allied nations having ceased to report the detailed results of the German submarine warfare, only general data can be obtained for the most part for the months of March and April.

The Aztec was the chief American ship reported sunk after the destruction of the Memphis, Vigilancia, and Illinois, the three American vessels whose loss brought on the extra session of Congress and the war declaration. The Aztec was an armed merchantman; the sinking was reported on April 2, the day the President delivered his war message. She was attacked by a submarine at night near an island off Brest, without warning, and in a heavy sea. She was a slow-moving freighter of 3,727 tons, loaded with a cargo of foodstuffs, valued at \$500,000, belonging to the Oriental Navigation Company. The vessel's guns were in charge of a naval detachment consisting of a Lieutenant and a crew of 11 gunners; 28 of the men on board, includ-

ing Boatswain's Mate Eopolucci of the United States Naval Guard, perished.

The American Oil steamship Healdton was sunk March 22 in the North Sea by a German submarine, and 21 of her crew, of whom 7 were Americans, perished. The cargo was valued at \$2,150,000; the United States Government War Risk Bureau lost \$499,000 by the sinking of the Healdton, bringing the total losses of the bureau—including \$250,000 on the Illinois—to \$1,583,924; but the premiums in that period amounted to \$3,167,997.

On March 23 the French cruiser Danton was reported as having been torpedoed in the Mediterranean Sea; 296 men were lost, 806 saved. The vessel displaced 18,028 tons.

The unarmed American steamer Mis sourian, which left Genoa April 4 with 32 Americans in her crew of 53—net tonnage 4,981—was sunk without warning in the Mediterranean. The American

steamer *Seward*, 3,390 tons, was sunk in the Mediterranean April 7.

On April 5 there came news of the sinking of two Belgian relief ships, the *Trevier* from New York and the *Feistein*; the latter was 2,991 tons, the *Trevier* 3,001. On April 9 the loss of the Belgian relief ship *Camilla* was sunk with a cargo of foodstuffs, making four relief ships destroyed in five weeks, with 17,000 tons of food.

On April 10 it was reported by the State Department that up to April 3, 1917, German submarines had sunk during the war 686 neutral vessels, including 19 American, and attacked unsuccessfully 79 others, including 8 American. Since the German war zone decree went into effect on Feb. 1 more than one-third of the vessels sunk were neutral, and a large number of other neutral vessels were terrorized into staying in

port. The neutral vessels sunk were as follows:

Norwegian, 410; Swedish, 111; Dutch, 61; Greek, 50; Spanish, 33; American, 19; Peruvian, 1; Argentine, 1; Total, 686.

Neutral vessels attacked and escaped: Norwegian, 32; Swedish, 9; Danish, 5; Greek, 8; Spanish, 2; Argentine, 1; Brazilian, 1; American, 8. Total, 79.

The British Admiralty reported sinkings in the five weeks ended April 1, 1917, to have been 80 vessels of over 1,600 tons each, 41 under 1,600 tons, and 43 smaller vessels. During the week ended April 8, 1917, the sinkings reported by the British Admiralty were: Vessels over 1,600 tons, 16; under 1,600 tons, 2; vessels arriving and sailing from United Kingdom in same period, 4,773. During the week ended April 15 the Admiralty reported the loss of 19 vessels of more than 1,600 tons, 9 less than 1,600, also 12 fishing vessels.

The Wind of Freedom

By JOHN GALSWORTHY

A wind in the world! The dark departs,
The chains now rust that crushed men's flesh and bones;
Feet tread no more the mildewed prison stones,
And slavery is lifted from your hearts.

A wind in the world! O company
Of darkened Russia, watching long in vain,
Now shall you see the cloud of Russia's pain
Go shrinking out across a Summer sky.

A wind in the world—but God shall be
In all the future left no kingly doll,
Decked out with dreadful sceptre, steel, and stole,
But walk the earth, a man in charity.

A wind in the world—and doubts are blown
To dust along, and the old stars come forth,
Stars of a creed to Pilgrim Father's worth—
A field of broken spears and flowers strown.

A wind in the world! Now truancy
From the true self is ended; to her part
Supreme again she moves and from her heart
A great America causes death to tyranny.

A wind in the world—and we have come
Together sea by sea in all the lands.
Vision doth move at last and freedom stands
With brightened wings and smiles and beckons home.

Holland in the Cross-Fire of Submarine Controversy

HOLLAND, more than any other neutral, has felt the effects of the war's cross-fire of trade restriction and destruction of shipping. The little nation's geographical position exposes it to interference by both warring groups. The drastic means adopted by Great Britain to prevent the Germans from importing foodstuffs and raw material would alone have been sufficient to cause privation, but when to this is added the havoc wrought by the German submarines at the expense of the Netherlands merchant marine the state of affairs becomes still more distressful. Even there the menace does not end. Since the beginning of the war Holland has had to be prepared to defend her neutrality by guarding her land frontier and by keeping the mouth of the Scheldt closed against any attempt to make Antwerp a base of submarine and other naval operations. In addition to the large force concentrated at Antwerp the Germans have recently had five army corps massed on their Dutch frontier. Nor has the problem of dealing with the hundreds of thousands of Belgians who fled into Holland from the invaders been a light one.

In the circumstances it was not practicable or expedient for Holland to follow the example set by the United States when the new submarine campaign began. Nevertheless, while unable to break off relations with Germany, the Netherlands Government lost no time in protesting in the most vigorous manner, as will be seen from the following note, dated Feb. 7, 1917, which was addressed by J. Loudon, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, to the German Minister at The Hague:

I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of the note of Jan. 31 last, A 390, in which your Excellency informed me that the Imperial Government sees itself forced to abolish the restrictions which it has applied until now to its methods of warfare at sea.

This note was accompanied by a memorandum containing details of the naval measures

to be adopted not only in the North Sea, the Channel, and a part of the Atlantic Ocean, but also in the Mediterranean. These measures are summed up in the establishment of two vast maritime zones, in which trade under any flag, neutral or enemy, will be stopped by force of arms, and in which ships will be exposed to destruction.

As far as the North Sea is concerned the zone is outlined in such a way as to leave a free passage for Dutch navigation, but on the other hand in the eastern portion of the Mediterranean the way is entirely barred between Port Said and the track drawn from Gibraltar to Greece, so that the route to the East Indies, which is essential to Holland as a colonial power, is cut.

The Queen's Government has in the course of the war more than once explained how it regards the arbitrary delimitation by the belligerent powers of a part of the sea as a zone reserved for military operations, in which commercial traffic is exposed to danger. Thus the Government protested, in a note, dated Nov. 16, 1914, to the British Minister, against the designation of the North Sea as a military zone in which merchant ships and fishing boats would be at least in danger by observing strictly the indications furnished by the British Admiralty.

Similarly, the Dutch Government protested in a memorandum, dated Feb. 12, 1915, against the proclamation by the German Government of a large portion of the North Sea and the Channel as a zone of war.

In these two cases the Queen's Government pointed out that, according to the law of nations, only the immediate sphere of action of the belligerents' military operations constitutes a military zone in which a belligerent's police power can be exercised. A zone with an area of the whole of the North Sea or of a large part of this sea and the Channel could not, in its opinion, be considered as an immediate sphere of action for operations of war; and in calling such areas military zones a serious blow was struck at the fundamental principle of the freedom of the seas.

That the Netherlands Government protested against both the above-mentioned cases is only a reason more why it is obliged to protest most energetically against the system now instituted by your Excellency's Government, a system which not only extends over much vaster areas but which also suggests premeditated attack on neutral vessels, whatever their cargo or destination, and without distinction as to whether their presence in the aforesaid areas is voluntary or due to circumstances independent of their will.

Even if the Imperial Government had de-

scribed as a blockade the measures which it had just adopted, the merciless destruction of every neutral ship proceeding to or leaving an enemy port would be contrary to the law of nations, which recognizes only the *confiscation* and not the *destruction* of ships trying to break a blockade. Moreover, the term "blockade," [“blocus”] in the French original of this document, which the Imperial Government has rightly avoided using, could evidently not be applied to the immense stretch of sea covered by each of the two zones of military operations indicated in the memorandum which your Excellency has transmitted to me; much less so, since, from the standpoint of international law, a blockade is directed solely against traffic to and from an adversary's ports and in no case against navigation directly between two neutral countries. Now, in the aforesaid zones the Imperial Navy has received orders to destroy all ships it meets without making the least distinction between those proceeding to or leaving an enemy port and those which are on the way between two neutral ports without touching at an enemy port.

Faithful to the principle which it has constantly upheld during this war, the Queen's Government can see in the destruction of neutral vessels by belligerents only a violation of the established law of nations, to say nothing of the wrong against the laws of humanity if such destruction is to take place without any regard for the safety of the people on board.

The responsibility for the destruction of Dutch ships which may eventuate in the zones under discussion and for the loss of human lives which would be involved will fall on the German Government. Its responsibility will be particularly heavy in the cases which are to be foreseen where vessels are forced to enter the danger zone by warships of an adversary exercising the right of visit and search.

To this protest Germany paid no attention. On Feb. 22 seven Dutch steamships sailing from Falmouth, England, were attacked by a German submarine a few hours after they left port. Six of the vessels, the Noorderdijk, Zaandijk, Jacatra, Bandoeng, Gaasterland, and Eemland, representing a total of over 30,000 tons, were sunk—without loss of life. The seventh, the Menado, was damaged, but towed back to port. Three, in ballast, were outward bound to America, and the others homeward bound with cargoes consisting mainly of foodstuffs. They had arrived at Falmouth on various dates and had been released by the British authorities at the special request of the Netherlands Government in the belief that the German submarines would

leave the ships unmolested. A storm of indignation swept through Holland, but the German Government refused to accept the blame. Foreign Secretary Zimmerman, replying to a question in the Reichstag on Feb. 28, said:

In the name of the Government I express regret at the accident which occurred a few days ago to Dutch boats. On our part, however, nothing was left undone to prevent it. In no way is the Imperial Government blamable. The Dutch shipowners naturally desired to get their ships out of English ports. Doubtless they were not ready to sail on Feb. 10, up to which date they could have gone with full security.

Then we put before them the dates Feb. 22 and March 17, stating expressly and formally that on the previous date the ships would have only relative security, while positive security could be guaranteed for March 17. The reason for this was that the possibility existed that on the earlier date submarines, being already en route, they might not all receive our message granting safe conduct to the Dutch vessels.

When the Dutch owners, notwithstanding our reiterated warnings, decided in favor of the earlier date, the Minister of Marine did everything in his power to communicate the order to all submarines. But it appears he was not successful, for, although a complete report on the incident has not yet been received, it appears established that the sinkings are attributable to a German submarine.

I can only repeat regrets of the Admiralty that the Dutch merchant marine has lost precious ships. The incident proves how dangerous it is to navigate the prohibited zones, and gives expression to our wish that neutral navigators cease to cross the zone, and remain in their ports. Thus they really serve their own interests and contribute effectively to the desired end that freedom of the seas be rapidly established.

The German Government also tried to appease Dutch anger by offering to replace the seven ships with German freighters. A Dutch Foreign Office statement issued on March 23 explained that the German Government on March 6 offered to pay an indemnity for the loss of members of the crews and to help the owners by facilitating the purchase of German ships after the war. This offer was made "on considerations of humanity and good neighborship." Further steps led to a reconsideration of the offer by Germany, who then suggested that Holland rent German ships "on reasonable conditions." The Dutch Government rejected the offer, and the owners of the ships that had been sunk in the

circumstances also refused to accept the proposal of indemnification for the crews.

In Great Britain the view was held that, despite the protests made by Holland, that country was accepting "whatever Germany dictates" and was indorsing "Germany's ruthless action by acquiescing in illegal submarine warfare on neutrals," and that, therefore, it was out of the question for Holland to expect facilities or consideration from Great Britain. These words were used in a statement issued in London on March 7 and were inspired by the fact that since the new German submarine campaign had begun Holland had held up practically all its shipping, thereby depriving England of the food supplies normally received from Holland.

The refusal of the authorities at Rotterdam to permit the British merchant steamer Princess Melita to enter the harbor because it was armed provided another bone of contention between the British and Dutch Governments. On March 9, however, when the Princess Melita put in an appearance for the third time after having thrown its armament overboard, it was permitted to berth. It was supposed that the Princess Melita had been sent for the purpose of giving the British Government the excuse to reopen the whole question of armed merchantmen. The Dutch Government, in its Orange Book of October, 1915, had

defined its attitude as one prohibiting all armed merchantmen from entering its ports. The German military menace on the eastern frontier and Great Britain's control of the sea easily accounted for Holland's indecision. Germany wanted armed merchantmen barred altogether, while Great Britain demanded that they should be admitted to Dutch ports in return for the facilities extended to Dutch vessels in avoiding German submarine dangers.

At the end of March the British Government insisted that a certain percentage of Dutch merchant tonnage should carry cargoes to British destinations, and on the Dutch Government refusing it was reported that forty Dutch steamers in British ports were to be confiscated, if they could not be acquired otherwise. Many of these vessels had been detained from six to eight weeks. The holding back of the grain in their holds intensified the food shortage in Holland, where a rule reducing the bread ration went into operation on April 2.

The situation created by Germany's new submarine campaign had thus in the course of a couple of months developed several new issues, with the result that there was also a growth of hostile feeling against Great Britain. America's entry into the war brought a change over the whole aspect of things, but at this writing Holland's attitude is undefined.

Progress of the War

Recording Campaigns on All Fronts and Collateral Events
From March 19 Up to and Including April 18, 1917

GERMAN-AMERICAN RELATIONS

On March 21, a few days after the sinking of the American ships *Vigilancia*, *City of Memphis*, and *Illinois* by German submarines, President Wilson issued a proclamation calling Congress in extra session on April 2. On March 24 he ordered the withdrawal from Belgium of Minister Whitlock, all American Consular officials, and American members of the Commission for Relief in Belgium. Mr. Whitlock and most of the relief workers left Brussels for Switzerland on April 2, but a few Americans who were working where the

German Army was in operation, by agreement, remained two weeks to prevent military disclosures.

The State Department formally refused Germany's request to extend the Prussian-American treaties of 1799 and 1828.

President Wilson addressed the Congress on April 2, asking that body to declare that Germany had been making war upon the United States. A resolution recognizing and declaring a state of war was passed by both houses. President Wilson signed it April 6 and at the same time issued a proclamation notifying the world that war

had been begun and warning alien enemies to keep the peace.

Defensive war zones around the coasts of the United States were announced in an executive order.

A \$7,000,000,000 war loan bill providing for a loan of \$3,000,000,000 to the Allies was passed by Congress.

On April 15 President Wilson issued a proclamation to the people setting forth the necessity for the mobilization of all the industrial forces of the nation to help win the war. Another proclamation, issued April 16, warned alien enemies against committing treasonable acts.

The United States destroyer Smith reported that she was attacked by a German submarine on April 17 off the Atlantic Coast. Several American ships were sunk by German submarines.

SUBMARINE BLOCKADE

On March 23 Germany declared a submarine blockade of the Arctic coast of Russia.

The British Admiralty announced that twenty-four British steamers were sunk in the war zone in the week ended March 18, nineteen in the week ended April 8, and nineteen in the week ended April 15. A dispatch from Berlin dated March 26 reported that twenty-five steamships, fourteen sailing vessels, and thirty-seven trawlers had been sunk within a few days. An additional list of thirty-four vessels sunk in March was given out April 1. Seven Italian ships were sunk without warning in the week ended April 15. The Norwegian Legation in London announced that in February and March 105 Norwegian vessels of over 228,000 tons were sunk and 106 persons killed and 222 missing. An official tabulation given out by the United States Government showed 686 neutral vessels, including 18 American, sunk by German submarines from the beginning of the war up to April 3.

Two Danish steamers were sunk outside the barred zone.

American losses for the month included the armed steamer Aztec and the unarmed ships Missourian and Seward. The schooner Marguerite was captured and presumably sunk.

Two British hospital ships, the Asturias and the Gloucester Castle, were sunk. The British steamer Alnwick Castle was torpedoed 320 miles from land. Four boats containing passengers reached Spain with ten dead. Other British losses included the horse transport Canadian and the steamships Crispin, Eptafolos, and Snowden Range.

Three Belgian relief ships, the Camilla, the Trevier, and the Feistein were sunk and two others, the Tunisie and the Haelen, were attacked.

Spain protested against the sinking of the Spanish steamer San Fulgencio without warning and demanded an indemnity. Later the Spanish steamer Tom was sunk, also without warning.

Brazil severed relations with Germany after the sinking of the steamer Parana in which three lives were lost, and seized all German ships in Brazilian ports.

Argentina, on April 10, issued a declaration announcing that the Government supported the position of the United States with reference to Germany. A few days later two Argentine ships, the transport Pamra and the sailing vessel Oriana, were sunk. Germans were ordered from a suburb of Buenos Aires, and German ships in Argentine waters, which were found to be damaged, were placed under guard. Mobs in Argentina destroyed much German property.

Guatemala protested to Germany against the blockade note of Feb. 1.

Cuba announced on April 7 that a state of war existed with Germany, and German ships in Havana Harbor were seized.

Panama announced her support of the United States.

Costa Rica declared her approval of United States course.

Mexico declared neutrality; also Chile; Bolivia severed relations with Germany; Paraguay and Uruguay declared neutrality.

CAMPAIGN IN EASTERN EUROPE

March 23—Russians regain positions near the Beresina River east of Lida.

March 24—Russians prepare to meet huge concentration of Germans on the northern front.

March 27—Germans force Russians back by gas attacks in the Baranovichi region.

April 1—Russians repel repeated Austrian attacks near Kirlibaba.

April 4—Germans defeat the Russians and cross the Stokhod River near Helenin; capture Toboly bridgehead.

April 6—Germans occupy part of Russian trenches east of Plakanen, but are driven out by counterattack.

April 14—Germans bombard Brody.

CAMPAIGN IN WESTERN EUROPE

March 19—Germans retreat over eighty-five-mile front extending from south of Arras to Soissons; French take Ham, Guiscard, and Chauny; British advance slowly; Germans make slight gains at Verdun between Avocourt and Dead Man Hill.

March 20—French occupy Tergnier and reach the outskirts of Roupy; ruins of Coucy-le-Chateau destroyed by Germans; French beat off German attacks on the left bank of the Meuse.

March 21—Germans make a stand on the Arras-Cambrai-St. Quentin-La Fère line; French cross the Somme Canal at two

places, driving the Germans back to Clastres and Montescourt; British occupy forty more villages south and southeast of Péronne.

March 22—French cross the Ailette River at several points.

March 23—French force Germans back two miles between St. Quentin and La Fère; Germans inundate the district around La Fère.

March 24—French take two forts protecting La Fère on the west and drive Germans toward St. Quentin; British occupy Roisel.

March 25—French drive Germans back to the outskirts of Folembray and Coucy.

March 26—British capture Lagnicourt, west of Cambrai; French push on in Coucy forest and capture Folembray and La Feuillée.

March 27—French capture the forest of Coucy; British take Longavesnes, Liermont, and Equancourt.

March 28—British press on north of Roisel and capture Villers-Faucon and the heights crowned by Saulcourt; Germans penetrate French first-line trenches west of Maisons-de-Champagne.

March 29—British capture Neuville Bourjonval.

March 30—British occupy Ruyalcourt, Fins, and Sorel-le-Grand; French recapture first-line positions west of Maisons-de-Champagne.

March 31—St. Quentin menaced on three sides as British take Vermand and Marteville; British advance up the Cologne River to within striking distance of the Scheldt, capturing eight villages; French push the Germans back on the Vregny plateau.

April 1—British capture Savy and Epehy.

April 2—British drive a wedge into the German positions on the ridge protecting St. Quentin from the west, capturing Holnon, Francilly, and Selency.

April 3—French storm the heights south and southwest of St. Quentin and capture Dallon, Giffecourt, and Cerizy, and heights south of Urvillers; British occupy Maissemy on the eastern bank of the Oignion River, Ronsoy Wood, and Henin on the Cojeol River.

April 4—French occupy Grugies, Urvillers, and Moy, south of St. Quentin; British take Metz-en-Couture.

April 5—Germans attack the French west of Rheims and force them over the Aisne Canal at some places; British capture Ronsoy and Basse-Boulogne east of Péronne.

April 6—British capture Lempire and advance toward Le Catelet; French retake part of positions lost north of Rheims.

April 8—British advance on a front of 3,000 yards north of the Bapaume-Cambrai road; Germans shell Rheims and French Government orders the civil population to evacuate the city.

April 9—British launch offensive on twelve-mile front north and south of Arras, penetrat-

ing German positions to a depth of from two to three miles, and capturing many fortified points, including Vimy Ridge.

April 10—British push forward as far as the outskirts of Monchy-le-Preux and capture Fampoux and its defenses on both sides of the Scarpe River.

April 11—British capture Monchy-le-Preux and heights dominating the country toward Cambrai.

April 12—British take Wancourt and Haninel, some positions north of the Scarpe River and drive the Germans from their last footing in the Vimy Ridge; French advance between Coucy and Quincy-Basse.

April 13—British capture Anres and the town of Vimy, extending their line of advance from the Scarpe River to Loos, and push on west of Le Catelet; French attack the Germans south of St. Quentin.

April 14—British take Fayet, Gricourt, and Lievin, the western suburb of Lens.

April 15—French guns shell St. Quentin; Belgians penetrate Dixmude as far as the second enemy line.

April 16—French launch an offensive on a twenty-five-mile front between Soissons and Rheims, capturing the German first-line positions and taking over 10,000 prisoners and reach the second German line at six points in Alsace; Germans destroy St. Quentin Canal.

April 17—French pierce new German line on eleven-mile front from Prunay to Aubervilliers, capturing important heights and support positions from Mount Carnillet to Vaudesincourt.

April 18—French again smash the Aisne line and capture Chavonne, Chivy, Ostel, and Bray-en-Laonnois, press forward north of Ostel, reach the outskirts of Courtecon, and take Vailly and Conde-sur-Aisne; British take Villers-Guislain, reporting 17,000 prisoners and much booty in three days' fighting, threatening German lines so as to make further withdrawals in Rheims region inevitable.

BALKAN CAMPAIGN

March 20—French in Macedonia report the capture of Rashtani, Hill 1248, and the Snegoo monastery north of Monastir; British take prisoners at Brest and Poroy, east of Lake Doiran.

March 21—French driven from heights northeast of Tarnova and Anegovo.

March 24—Germans take Rumanian frontier ridge between the Solyomtar and Czobanov Valleys from the Russians.

April 2—Russians in Rumania repulsed on four-mile front on both sides of the Oituz Valley.

April 18—Germans burn Braila and Fokshani.

ITALIAN CAMPAIGN

March 19—Renewal of activity reported;

Austrian raids repulsed in the Giumella Valley and Lucati sector.
 March 21—Austrians repulsed on Costabella Massif.
 April 17—Intense artillery fire reported on the Julian front: Italians bombard Callano in the Lagarina Valley.
 April 18—Italians shell Rovereto Station and trains on the Sugana Valley Railway.

ASIA MINOR

March 19—Russians in Persia occupy Harun-abad; British cross the Diala River and occupy Bahriz and part of Bakubah.
 March 21—Turkish force near Aden isolated from headquarters; another Arabian chieftain rises against the Turks; Russians cross the Mesopotamian frontier into Turkish territory to join the British.
 March 23—Russians attack the Turks along the Shirwan River.
 March 26—Russians pursue the Turks into Mosul Vilayet.
 March 29—British rout a Turkish army of 20,000 in battle near Gaza.
 March 31—British advance north of Bagdad and occupy Kalaat Felujah, Sheraban, Dely Abbas, and the areas of Deltawah and Sindirjah.
 April 2—Russians occupy Miataque Peitaht and Serpoule and force the Turks toward the Mesopotamian border.
 April 5—Russians occupy Khaninkin and Kasrichirin and get into touch with British patrols.
 April 7—Russians land on Turkish territory on the Black Sea coast east of Samsoon.
 April 12—British capture Turkish territory to a depth of fifteen miles in the region of Gaza.
 April 14—Turks routed in battle north of Bagdad.
 April 16—British drive Turks back to their positions on the Jebel Hamrin hills.

AERIAL RECORD

Italians bombarded the railway station at Galliano and brought down two Austrian airplanes.
 Russian airplanes set Braila on fire April 1. On April 7 large squadrons of British airplanes were sent up over the new German lines on the western front to photograph enemy positions. The greatest air battle of the war followed. Forty-eight German airplanes and ten captive balloons were brought down by the British, who lost twenty-eight of their own machines, but succeeded in taking 1,700 photographs.
 Allied airplanes raided Freiburg April 14. Eleven persons were killed and twenty-seven wounded.
 American Aviator Genet killed in France.

NAVAL RECORD

The French warship Danton torpedoed in the Mediterranean Sea March 19, and 296 sailors were drowned.
 On March 22 Berlin announced that the Ger-

man raider Möwe had returned to her home port from a second cruise in the Atlantic in which she captured twenty-seven vessels.

England announced an extension of the boundaries of the North Sea danger area, cutting safety lanes off Holland and Denmark.

The French bark Cambronne arrived at Rio Janeiro March 30 carrying the crews of eleven steamers and sailing vessels sunk by the German raider Seeadler in the South Atlantic.

During the night of March 28-29 German warships cruised in the barred zone off the south coast of England and sank the British patrol trawler Mascot.

One German destroyer was sunk and another damaged off the Belgian coast April 8.

The American Line steamship New York struck a mine near the coast of England on April 10, but was only slightly damaged and reached her dock unaided.

The British hospital ship Salta was sunk by a mine in the English Channel.

A German submarine made an unsuccessful attack on the U. S. destroyer Smith on April 17, about 100 miles south of New York.

RUSSIA

The former Czar and Czarina were taken to Tsarskoe Selo. Other high dignitaries of the old régime were imprisoned. The United States extended partial recognition to the new Government on March 21.

The Central Committee and Parliamentary representatives of the Constitutional Democratic Party at Petrograd voted in favor of a republican form of government. A committee was appointed to settle the affairs of Poland and the Provisional Government announced its wish that Poland decide for itself the form of government it desired. Religious freedom was proclaimed April 4 and many other reforms are under consideration, including woman suffrage.

MISCELLANEOUS

Austria-Hungary severed diplomatic relations with the United States on April 7. Austrian ships in American ports were seized.

The German Emperor ordered Chancellor von Bethmann Hollweg to submit to him proposals for the reform of the Prussian electoral law. Strikes in Berlin followed a reduction in bread rations. Thousands of workers left the munitions plants.

Greece presented a note to Italy insisting upon the withdrawal of Italian troops from Epirus to Avlona.

A new Cabinet was formed in France, headed by Alexandre Ribot.

Chinese troops occupied without opposition the German concessions at Tien-tsin and Hankow.

Allied Successes in France

Period from March 18 to April 17, 1917

By J. B. W. Gardiner

Formerly Lieutenant Eleventh United States Cavalry

THE past month has seen the most important developments in the European war since the first months of its progress. These have been principally three, all distinctly hurtful to Germany: The retreat on the western front, which includes the battle of Arras; the operations in the Near East, and, finally, the entrance of the United States on the side of the Allies. All theatres other than those mentioned have been extremely, ominously quiet.

The great German retreat was well under way as the review for April was being written, but it had not progressed to the point where any conclusions were admitted. The German press at the outset confused the entire issue. Its statements may then be ignored.

In the first place the German retreat was not voluntary, but was forced. The battle of the Somme, biting as it did deep into the German lines, produced a wedge which seriously threatened the Noyon salient. Only a little more, and the troops in this salient would have been unable to retire. The Germans saw the threat to this large body of men, so drew back from the danger before it had an opportunity actually to strike them. To this extent the retreat was a strategical move. That the movement was made with a view to shortening the lines and thereby strengthening them may be entirely possible as a subsidiary thought, but it was not the moving factor. The theory that von Hindenburg simply wished to draw the Allies out of the trenches into the open and then defeat them has also been exploded.

The matter of the withdrawal itself is most interesting. It was assumed in many quarters that the line on which the Germans would stand was through Laon, La Fère, St. Quentin, and Cambrai. This

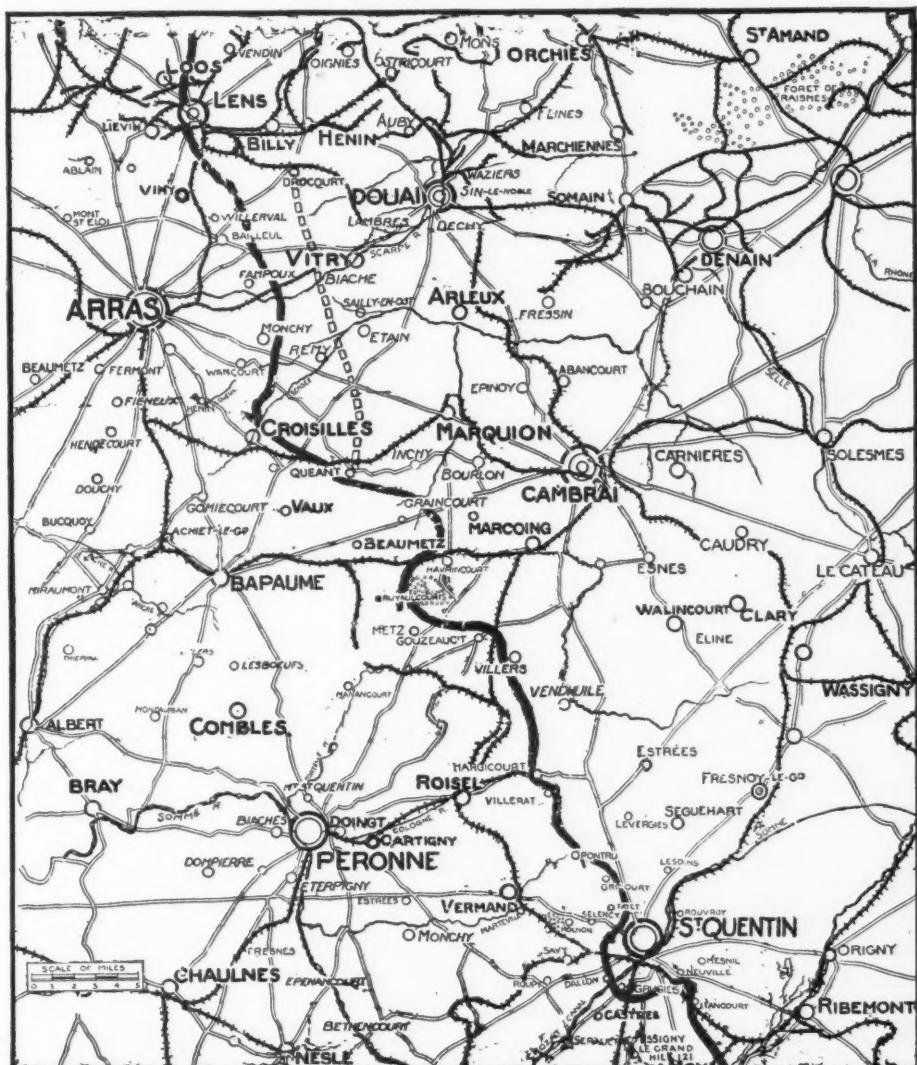
was a perfectly logical conclusion, as it had its basis in the existing railroads connecting these places. In fact, but little has happened since to give rise to any doubt that the German intention was different from that outlined. The distance from Noyon to the new line was very much greater than that from the Bapaume position to Cambrai. Nevertheless, it was the Bapaume line which first gave way.

This would indicate that the German retirement took place ahead of schedule time because of the British pressure along the Ancre, and the way in which the Germans have since been handled by both the British and the French would seem to increase the probability that this was the case. Nevertheless, the preparations for the retreat were thoroughly made and the requisite transport was at hand.

Rapid French Pursuit

The Germans, as they fell back, destroyed all the railroad lines, blew up the roads and roadbeds, and did all else that could in any way hinder the pursuit of the allied armies. That they went beyond this and, in a blind, ruthless orgy of destruction, razed to the ground every building however unadapted it might be to military purposes is beside the point. This is merely another interesting phase of German psychology. But in spite of the fact that the Germans were able to get away with small loss, the French and the British were apparently as prepared to follow as the Germans were to fall back. The French in particular did brilliant work in this respect. The pursuit on the southern part of the line, which was held by the French, was extremely rapid—much more rapid than any one had anticipated.

Not for a moment, it seemed, was con-



BATTLE LINE IN FRANCE, APRIL 18, 1917. THE WHOLE REGION FROM BAPAUME, PERONNE AND NESLE, AS FAR EAST AS THE BLACK LINE, WAS DEVASTATED BY THE GERMANS IN THEIR RECENT RETREAT

tact lost. The French engineers followed the Germans closely, reconstructing and rebuilding, and the French infantry and artillery pressed the situation closely. The pursuit evidently surprised the Germans, who, before they had an opportunity to stop and fight, found their line interfered with, if not actually cut. La Fère seemed to be the point at which the French advance was directed. Without fighting any heavy engagements the French reached and occupied the town

of Tergnier, within two miles of La Fère. This completely eliminated the latter town as a point of German vantage.

Further south, along the Aillette River, the French came to their first stumbling block. This river stands as a guard to the great patches of wood south of the La Fère position, and is known as the lower and upper forests of Coucy and the Woods of St. Gobain. This river was crossed, however, after heavy fighting, and, finally, pushing ahead on the

southern end of the line, the French took the village of Coucy. The lower forests of Coucy were occupied, bringing the French to the edge of the forest of St. Gobain. Here the French came to a halt, as it was evident that they had reached the main defenses of the German line to which von Hindenburg had intended to retreat.

Further north the Germans were not so fortunate in checking the French. From just east of Tergnier, the French fought their way eastward, pivoting their line on the Tergnier position, and pressed the Germans back against the Oise River as far north as the town of Moy. This threw the French well to the east of St. Quentin and in a position to work their way, without meeting any natural obstacles, in rear of the town. This they did, driving due north from Moy until they had reached a point just south of Neuville. Their line then swung westward near the suburbs of St. Quentin, along all the high ground south of the city. This was certainly not in accordance with the German plan, as it brought every means of exit from the city directly under the fire even of the smaller French artillery.

The British Advance

The British, on the other hand, had a much more difficult road to travel. Because of the shorter distance which the Germans had to pass over, their retreat, after the line first began to give way, was much slower, and the pursuit was conducted with constant fighting, mostly of heavy rear-guard character. The British object was to prevent the use of Cambrai in the same way as the French had impaired if not destroyed the usefulness of St. Quentin.

The pivot of the German retreat in the north was a point on the southern tip of Vimy Ridge, a position before which so many French had lost their lives, and which was believed to be practically impregnable. No effort was made against it, the British expending all of their efforts toward reaching the line of the Scheldt River. Here the British gave the best indication of their fighting strength. Each day recorded a new advance of greater or less extent on the

entire front from the Vimy Ridge to St. Quentin, where the British and French joined. The result was more than satisfactory to the British commander.

As this review is being written the British have thrown a loop around St. Quentin on the north and west which brings their lines so near to those of the French that it is impossible for the Germans to keep control or possession of the city much longer. More important still, the British are but a little over a mile from the Scheldt River, with the Germans in between. It seems certain that before these lines appear the Germans will have fallen behind the river, from which the British cannot force them except by a flanking movement, to be made at some time in the future.

While the fighting west of the Scheldt was at its height the British, after a terrific artillery preparation, suddenly launched an attack against the Vimy Ridge, the pivot of the German retirement. Here was the first positive indication that the Germans, in addition to being outgunned and outmanned, were also outgeneraled. The Germans gave out officially that by their retirement they had completely upset the British plan for an attack on the Somme and delayed any other attack indefinitely because of the necessity of reconstructing the transport system. The probabilities were, however, that the British never intended to attack on that section of the front affected by the German retreat. On the contrary, it now seems that the British commander, undoubtedly acquainted with the fact that a retreat was coming, had laid his plans for an attack which would produce the same result on the line north of Arras as the Somme had produced in the south.

In one day's fighting the Canadian troops, who held the centre of the attacking line, swept to the crest of Vimy Ridge and well over it, forcing the Germans down the eastern slope. It was here, too, that for the first time the Germans gave indications of going to pieces. There was a temporary demoralization in their ranks which manifested itself in the fighting, for, almost

immediately following the first attack, the British pushed this new wedge fully five miles into the German lines.

Since these early days the advance has been further extended, but the first blow netted five miles. The Germans were entirely unprepared for any such action as this. The amount and character of booty captured show how completely swept off their feet they were. Nearly 200 guns, some of them of large calibre, an enormous quantity of shell, 15,000 prisoners, loaded wagon trains and transports, all of which there was sufficient time to remove or destroy—these are the things which tell the story much more vividly than the official reports.

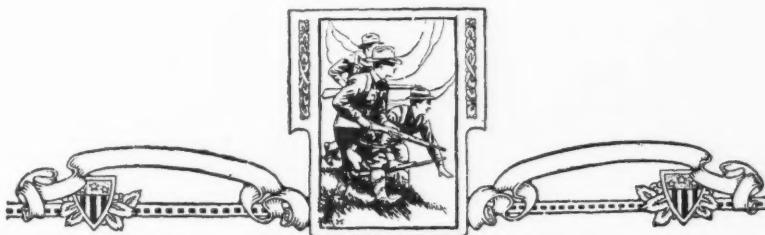
As this review is being written, (April 20,) the British are in the streets of the great coal mining centre of Lens, in possession of half of the town and fighting desperately for the other half. The advantage now on this section of the front all lies with the British. All of the high ground overlooking the coal fields and the great plain of Northern France now stretches out before them. Douai, which must now become a point on the new line, is in plain sight, with the Germans everywhere recoiling toward it. It may well be, from the desperate character of the fighting, that the battle of Europe is now being fought.

Turkish Armies in Retreat

In the Near Eastern theatre matters have gone very ill with the Turks. Beaten in every engagement by the British, the resistance offered to the Russians in Persia suddenly gave way, and, without any opposition, the Russians drove for-

ward past the Persian frontiers into Mesopotamia and effected a junction with the British, cutting off in the process a considerable portion of the Turkish Army. This junction means the downfall of the Turkish opposition. Nothing approaching this in importance has happened in this theatre since the beginning of the war. It has been a long time coming, and has been most bitterly fought for, but its importance cannot be overestimated. Turkey is more than weakened. She is in danger of dismemberment even before the war closes. A successful revolution in Arabia, an uprising in Syria, defeats in the Holy Land, the loss of almost all of Armenia, the occupation of a great part of Mesopotamia—all these disasters have shaken Turkish rule in Asia to the very foundations. It is questionable how much longer the Sultan can hold out and keep his followers and his army loyal.

Finally, to complete the list of German disasters for the month, German barbaric cruelty and ruthlessness forced the United States to the admission that a state of war existed with the German Empire. America has a potential force of 15,000,000 men, can put up if need be seventy-five billion of dollars, and has the greatest resources for food and manufacturing of any nation in the world. The navy is nearly as large in itself as that of Germany, and if any one factor were needed to give to the world assurance of the solidity and permanence of democratic rule as opposed to autocracy, the action of this, the most pacific of great democracies, has furnished it.



German Version of the Month's Fighting

March 17 to April 17, 1917

FROM the official German standpoint the events in the western theatre of the war during April differ from the allied reports. The following summary of the month's fighting was compiled exclusively from the official reports issued by the War Office in Berlin and other German sources.

The Germans assert that the retirement at three different points on an eighty-five-mile front from south of Arras to Soissons on the Aisne, which was taking place in the middle of March and leaving a large number of towns and villages in the hands of the British and French, "was part of a definite plan." These strategic movements had been "prepared long ago and were carried out without being disturbed by the enemy, who followed in a hesitating manner." The "protecting troops, by perspicacious and energetic conduct, cast a veil over the abandonment of the positions and the departure of our troops." In the abandoned districts the means of communication useful to the enemy were destroyed.

The Berlin official report of March 22 said that spirited fighting in the district on both sides of the Somme and the Oise had "an issue favorable to us," and the next day's report contained the following:

"French troops, which on both sides of St. Simon had crossed the Somme-Crozat Canal, were repulsed by an attack against and beyond those sectors. The enemy suffered sanguinary losses and lost 230 prisoners, as well as several machine guns and carts.

"Between the Oise and the Aisne during the evening hours engagements developed west and south of Margival. Attacks by strong French forces were repulsed with heavy losses under our fire and by a counterattack."

German View of Retreat

An account of the German retirement

given by a correspondent of the *Berliner Tageblatt* was as follows:

"Till the last moment the exploding platoons remained in the towns and villages to finish the work of destruction, and then fight their way back the best they could. The general system of retreat was something marvelous. Every detachment knew exactly which way to turn. Every column had its way prescribed, and, despite this gigantic movement of man, beast, and truck, there were no blockades, no congestion anywhere, all arriving exactly at the prescribed hour. Messengers rode about to notify the different commands of the time to start, while at the same time gigantic motor cars distributed enormous quantities of explosives to the pioneer platoons.

"Wherever possible, without attracting the special attention of the natives or the Allies, houses were burned down days before the evacuation. Walls that would not fall were exploded when the Allies were in the heat of an artillery fight, suggesting the tremendous effect of their fire. These preparations took many days, but toward the end heavy fogs in the mornings and cloudy atmosphere in the afternoons permitted the burning of villages without concealment. And to think, the Allies never had the slightest idea of what was going on! They never interfered with the German plans of destruction, and never thought of shelling the German lines of communication, while endless columns marched over them. The last I saw was German machine-gun platoons disappearing among the ruins and German patrols taking what little part was left to await the Allies. Slowly, with enormous losses, the hostile hordes are now feeling their way through the dangers lurking all about them."

Another correspondent's story contains the following:

"The country behind the allied trenches had been covered with a great network of

railways and roads for heavy mortars which would enable them to move divisions and army corps with lightning speed and so concentrate unexpectedly on any weak spot of the German line they might discover while shamming a general attack along the whole front. Day after day German fliers watched the mountains of ammunition and provisions pile up at the British base, to which well-metalled white roads reached out from the trenches like tentacles of some ghastly monster to suck in the whole world for slaughter and destruction. Billions of dollars' worth of material, iron, wood, and cement, and the labor of a vast army was sunk in this ground between the British trenches and the base. All these gigantic preparations were conducted with truly English naïveté, for any other nation would have told itself that fliers watching them day by day would have long ago supplied the German General Staff with very exact data of what was going on.

"Then all of a sudden mysterious movements began on the German side. Soldiers, taking with them their kits and all other belongings, left the trenches and dugouts. The mountains of munitions grew rapidly less by the efforts of many hundreds of huge mortar carriers, of wagons drawn by eight horses, streaming incessantly, day and night, over the groundless roads which nobody now thought of repairing any more.

"Whole villages disappeared over night, their inhabitants being concentrated in a few singled-out towns and places where they were comparatively safe and from where they might easily reach their own people when the time would come. Of bush and trees, nothing was left standing that might serve the Allies as cover. Even the belongings were removed from the houses before the latter were leveled to the ground. Night after night the artillery rolled back in an endless chain, followed by regiment after regiment of silent gray war lords.

"Small troops armed with machine guns remained behind, however, and kept up a sham of trench war. So well did they succeed in deceiving the British that they often drew the British heavy guns to furious bombardments of what

was already a deserted strip of land. Behind their new positions, ten to fifteen kilometers back, the Germans chuckled when they read in the British reports of the explosions of German munition magazines caused by the never-failing British gunfire. They knew only too well that another village had been leveled, another bridge blown up by the astute German pioneers.

"When finally the British hesitatingly felt their way into what were once the German lines, they discovered between the Oise and Arras a lifeless chaos which baffled all their zealous preparation of many months for the deadly blow that would now fall on the air."

A Successful Retirement

An official report on March 25 stated that "the German rear guards engaged with hostile forces near Beaumetz and Roisel and east of the Crozat Canal fell back after inflicting heavy losses, and that a French attack northeast of Soissons was repulsed." Again, on March 27, a French attack on the west bank of the Oise, near La Fère, "failed with heavy losses." "The German retirement continued to be conducted with the greatest success." On March 31, however, "between the road from Péronne to Gouzeaucourt and the lowland of Omignon Brook the English, in engagements in which they suffered heavy losses, advanced their line for a distance of from two to three kilometers."

Heavy fighting took place between Arras and the Aisne on April 1 and 2, "notably between the roads leading from Bapaume to Croiselles and Bapaume to Cambrai, as well as on both banks of the Somme, west of St. Quentin. The British and the French launched strong forces, which, because of the effect of our artillery fire, flowed back several times, and which only after considerable losses, which included fifty prisoners and some machine guns, gained ground because of our troops giving way, as had been ordered."

In the official report of April 9, describing the first day of the battle of Arras, it was stated that the enemy had forced his way into parts of the German positions. On April 10 the report said:

"In stubbornly resisting the superiority of the enemy two of our divisions suffered considerable losses. The British succeeded in penetrating our positions on the roads radiating from Arras, but did not break through."

The Frankfort Gazette stated positively that the German line had not been broken east of Arras and that the attack did not take the General Staff by surprise, but had been provided for in its plans. Heavy losses were admitted, but, said that journal, "the defense of the western front will cost us heavy sacrifices this year, but they will not be in vain."

The impression sought to be created by the German press was that the battle of Arras was an event of "only local importance, though lamentable in its results." "It had, however, been soon brought to a standstill and did not in any way affect the strategic situation. It was part of the plan of the Anglo-French command, foiled in its intentions of delivering a shattering blow on the Somme front, to roll up the new Hindenburg line by assaults on both flanks, at Soissons and Arras. Both attempts failed."

Field Marshal von Hindenburg, in an interview, avowed his confidence in the strength of the German fronts on the west and east, and expressed a conviction that the submarine campaign would not fail.

"Unfounded" Excitement

The official reports continued to speak of attacks repulsed with heavy losses during the succeeding days of the battle of Arras, but on April 13 the military critic of the Berlin Vossische Zeitung wrote that he had received many letters which proved that "the nerves of many readers are beginning to give way." He dwelt on the "unfounded" excitement which, he said, was spreading among those at home, and he warned the public not to judge the situation from single events, but to take events as a whole into consideration.

The German War Office report of April 15 stated:

"On the Arras battlefield, as the result of the removal of our line north of the Scarpe, only minor engagements occurred,

in which the enemy suffered heavy losses. From the Scarpe lowlands to the Arras-Cambrai railway violent fighting occurred yesterday morning. British divisions in heavy masses attacked repeatedly, but were always repulsed with sanguinary losses. In addition to these British sacrifices, a counterthrust by our troops resulted in the capture of 300 prisoners and twenty machine guns."

That the fighting was no longer merely of local importance was indicated in the report issued at the end of the first day of the new French offensive, April 16: "On the Aisne a great French attempt to break through, with a far-distant object, has commenced after a ten days' mass fire. A bitter fight is proceeding on a forty-kilometer front around our foremost positions."

Finally, the report of April 17 says that "one of the greatest battles of the mighty war, and, therefore, also in the world's history, is in progress on the River Aisne." The report continues:

"In the Champagne this morning fighting between Prunay and Aubérive developed, the battle line thereby extending from the River Oise into the Champagne. Our troops anticipate with entire confidence the coming heavy fighting.

"A great French attempt to break through yesterday, the object of which was far-reaching, failed. The losses of the enemy were very heavy. More than 2,100 prisoners remained in our hands. Where the enemy at a few places penetrated into our line fighting still continues and fresh enemy attacks are expected.

"On Monday afternoon the French threw fresh masses into the fray and carried out lateral attacks between the Oise and Condé, on the Aisne. The artillery fight which was continued today leveled the positions and produced wide, deep craters, rendering an obstinate defense no longer possible.

"The fighting no longer is against a line but over quite a deep and irregular fortified zone. The battle sways backward and forward around our foremost positions, our object being, if the war material is lost, to spare the lives of our forces and to inflict heavy sanguinary losses and thus decisively weaken the enemy. This was achieved."

United States Rejects German Protocol

WHEN Ambassador Gerard was about to depart from Berlin he was placed under pressure by the German Government to get him to sign a document confirming and enlarging the privileges of German citizens in the United States in case of war between the two countries, as defined in the half-forgotten treaty made with Prussia in 1799. The protocol which Mr. Gerard was asked to sign was an elaboration of Article 23 of the old convention, amounting practically to a new treaty, and requiring not only the approval of the State Department at Washington but also the confirmation of the United States Senate. Mr. Gerard protested against the methods used to get his support for this document, and emphatically declined to have anything to do with it. After some delay he was allowed to depart.

Text of German Protocol

The document was then forwarded by the Berlin authorities—through the Swiss Foreign Office at Berne—to the Swiss Minister at Washington, Dr. Paul Ritter, who handed it to Secretary of State Lansing on Feb. 10, 1917. The text of this communication, and of the agreement which Germany was so anxious to have the United States accept on the eve of war, is as follows:

The American treaty of friendship and commerce of the 11th of July, 1799, provides by Article 23 for the treatment of the subjects or citizens of the two States and their property in the event of war between the two States. This article, which is without question in full force as regards the relations between the German Empire and the United States, requires certain explanations and additions on account of the development of international law. The German Government, therefore, proposes that a special arrangement be now signed, of which the English text is as follows:

Agreement between Germany and the United States of America concerning the treatment of each other's citizens and their private property after the severance of diplomatic relations.

Article One—After the severance of diplomatic relations between Germany and the United States of America, and in the event of the outbreak of war between the two powers, the citizens of either party and their private property in the territory of the other

party shall be treated according to Article 23 of the treaty of amity and commerce between Prussia and the United States of the 11th of July, 1799, with the following explanatory and supplementary clauses:

Article Two—German merchants in the United States and American merchants in Germany shall, so far as the treatment of their persons and property is concerned, be held in every respect on a par with the other persons mentioned in Article 23. They shall, accordingly, even after the period provided for in Article 23 has elapsed, be entitled to remain and continue their profession in the country of their residence. Merchants as well as the other persons mentioned in Article 23 may be excluded from fortified places or other places of military importance.

Article Three—Germans in the United States and Americans in Germany shall be free to leave the country of their residence within the time and by the routes that shall be assured to them by the proper authorities. The persons departing shall be entitled to take along their personal property, including money, valuables, and bank accounts, excepting such property the exportation of which is prohibited according to general provisions.

Article Four—The protection of Germans in the United States and of Americans in Germany and of their property shall be guaranteed in accordance with the laws existing in the countries of either party. They shall be under no other restrictions concerning the enjoyment of their private rights and the judicial enforcement of their rights than neutral residents. They may accordingly not be transferred to concentration camps, nor shall their private property be subject to sequestration or liquidation or other compulsory alienation except in cases that under the existing laws apply also to neutrals. As a general rule, German property in the United States and American property in Germany shall not be subject to sequestration or liquidation or other compulsory alienation under other conditions than neutral property.

Article Five—Patent rights or other protected rights held by Germans in the United States or Americans in Germany shall not be declared void, nor shall the exercise of such rights be impeded, nor shall such rights be transferred to others without the consent of the person entitled thereto, provided that regulations made exclusively in the interests of the States shall apply.

Article Six—Contracts made between Germans and Americans, either before or after the severance of diplomatic relations, also obligations of all kinds between Germans and Americans, shall not be declared canceled, void, or in suspension except under provisions applicable to neutrals. Likewise the citizens of either party shall not be impeded in fulfilling their liabilities arising from such

obligations, either by injunctions or by other provisions, unless these apply to neutrals.

Article Seven—The provisions of the Sixth Hague Convention relative to the treatment of enemy merchant ships at the outbreak of hostilities shall apply to the merchant vessels of either party and their cargo. The aforesaid ships may not be forced to leave port unless at the time they be given a pass recognized as binding by all the enemy sea powers to a home port or a port of an allied country or to another port of the country in which the ship happens to be.

Article Eight—The regulations of Chapter 3 of the Eleventh Hague Convention relative to certain restrictions in the exercise of the right of capture in maritime war shall apply to the Captains, officers, and members of the crews of merchant ships specified in Article 7 and of such merchant ships as may be captured in the course of a possible war.

Article Nine—This agreement shall apply also to the colonies and other foreign possessions of either party.

Text of American Reply

The note in which the United States rejected the foregoing proposition was handed to the Swiss Minister at Washington on March 20, and is printed below in full. It places the refusal on the ground of Germany's own "flagrant violations" of the original treaty, and raises the question whether all the immunities granted by that treaty have not in effect been abrogated by the German sinkings of American merchant ships:

The Secretary of State to the Minister of Switzerland in charge of German interests in America.

Department of State,
Washington, March 20, 1917.

Sir: I beg to acknowledge the receipt of your note of Feb. 10 presenting the proposals of the German Government for an interpretative and supplementary agreement as to Article 23 of the Treaty of 1799.

After due consideration, I have to inform you that the Government of the United States is not disposed to look with favor upon the proposed agreement to alter or supplement the meaning of Article 23 of this treaty.

The position of the Government of the United States, which might under other conditions be different, is due to the repeated violations by Germany of the Treaty of 1828, and the articles of the Treaties of 1799 and 1828 revised by the Treaty of 1828. It is not necessary to narrate in detail these violations, for the attention of the German Government has been called to the circumstances of each instance of violation, but I may here refer to certain of them briefly and in general terms.

Since the sinking of the American ship William P. Frye for the carriage of contraband, there have been perpetrated by the

German naval forces similar unwarranted attacks upon and destruction of numerous American vessels for the reason, as alleged, that they were engaged in transportation of articles of contraband, notwithstanding and in disregard of Article 13 of the Treaty of 1799 that "no such articles (of contraband) carried in the vessels or by the subjects or citizens of either party to the enemies of the other shall be deemed contraband so as to induce confiscation or condemnation and a loss of property to individuals." And that in the case of a vessel stopped for articles of contraband, if the master of the vessel stopped will deliver out the goods supposed to be of contraband nature, he shall be admitted to do it, and the vessel shall not in that case be carried into any port or further detained, but shall be allowed to proceed on her voyage.

In addition to the sinking of American vessels, foreign merchant vessels carrying American citizens and American property have been sunk by German submarines without warning and without any adequate security for the safety of the persons on board or compensation for the destruction of the property by such action, notwithstanding the solemn engagements of Article 15 of the Treaty of 1799, that "all persons belonging to any vessels of war, public or private, who shall molest or insult in any manner whatever the people, vessel, or effects of the other party, shall be responsible in their persons and property for damages and interests, sufficient security for which shall be given by all commanders of private armed vessels before they are commissioned," and notwithstanding the further stipulation of Article 12 of the Treaty of 1799 that "the free intercourse and commerce of the subjects or citizens of the party remaining neutral with the belligerent powers shall not be interrupted."

Disregarding these obligations, the German Government has proclaimed certain zones of the high seas in which it declared without reservation that all ships, including those of neutrals, will be sunk, and in those zones German submarines have in fact, in accordance with this declaration, ruthlessly sunk merchant vessels and jeopardized or destroyed the lives of American citizens on board.

Moreover, since the severance of relations between the United States and Germany certain American citizens in Germany have been prevented from removing from the country. While this is not a violation of the terms of the treaties mentioned, it is a disregard of the reciprocal liberty of intercourse between the two countries in times of peace and cannot be taken otherwise than as an indication of the purpose on the part of the German Government to disregard, in the event of war, the similar liberty of action provided for in Article 23 of the Treaty of 1799—the very article which it is now proposed to interpret and supplement almost wholly in the interests of the large

number of German subjects residing in the United States and enjoying in their persons or property the protection of the United States Government.

This article provides in effect that merchants of either country residing in the other shall be allowed a stated time in which to remain to settle all their affairs and to "depart freely, carrying off all their effects without molestation or hindrance," and women and children, artisans and certain others may continue their respective employments and shall not be molested in their persons or property. It is now proposed by the Imperial Government to enlarge the scope of this article so as to grant to German subjects and German property remaining in the United States in time of war the same treatment in many respects as that enjoyed by neutral subjects and neutral property in the United States.

In view of the clear violations by the German authorities of the plain terms of the treaties in question, solemnly concluded on the mutual understanding that the obligations thereunder would be faithfully kept; in view further of the disregard of the canons of international courtesy and the comity of

nations in the treatment of innocent American citizens in Germany, the Government of the United States cannot perceive any advantage which would flow from further engagements, even though they were merely declaratory of international law, entered into with the Imperial German Government in regard to the meaning of any articles of these treaties or as supplementary to them.

In these circumstances, therefore, the Government of the United States declines to enter into the special protocol proposed by the Imperial Government.

This Government is seriously considering whether or not the Treaty of 1828 and the revised articles of the Treaties of 1785 and 1790 have not been in effect abrogated by the German Government's flagrant violations of their provisions, for it would be manifestly unjust and inequitable to require one party to an agreement to observe its stipulations and to permit the other party to disregard them.

It would appear that the mutuality of the undertaking has been destroyed by the conduct of the German authorities.

Accept, &c.,

ROBERT LANSING.

Your Flag and My Flag

By WILBUR D. NESBIT

[A new national anthem that sprang into favor all over the country in the weeks preceding the declaration of war.]

Your flag and my flag!
And how it flies today
In your land and my land
And half a world away!
Rose-red and blood-red
The stripes forever gleam;
Snow-white and soul-white—
The good forefathers' dream;

Sky-blue and true blue, with stars to gleam aright—
The gloried guidon of the day; a shelter through the night.

Your flag and my flag!
To every and star and stripe
The drums beat as hearts beat
And fifers shrilly pipe!
Your flag and my flag—
A blessing in the sky;
Your hope and my hope—
It never hid a lie!

Home land and far land and half the world around,
Old Glory hears our glad salute and ripples to the sound!

Your flag and my flag!
And oh, how much it holds—
Your land and my land—
Secure within its folds!
Your heart and my heart
Beat quicker at the sight;
Sun-kissed and wind-tossed—
Red and blue and white.

The one flag—the great flag—the flag for me and you—
Glorified all else beside—the red and white and blue!

CURRENT HISTORY CHRONICLED

[PERIOD ENDED APRIL 20, 1917]

WAR COUNCIL AT WASHINGTON

THE heads of the French and British missions to the United States, Arthur James Balfour and René Viviani, are distinguished among the statesmen of their countries by the fact that both have been Prime Ministers. M. Viviani was Premier of France when the war broke out, and was later Minister of Justice under M. Briand. He was also a member of the joint Anglo-French mission to Russia in the weeks before the Russian revolution. Mr. Balfour was Prime Minister after the death of his distinguished uncle, the Marquis of Salisbury, in 1902. He has held office in the coalition War Ministries of Mr. Asquith and Mr. Lloyd George, as First Lord of the Admiralty, and later as Secretary for Foreign Affairs. Mr. Balfour is completely familiar with the two most vital Entente problems, the international question and the submarine question.

The hero of the joint mission is Marshal Joffre, the victor of the Marne, but for whose splendid work at the War Ministry France would have had no adequate army to oppose the German invasion; but for whose consummate strategy General von Kluck would in all likelihood have captured Paris and changed the history of the war. Marshal Joffre has been a great traveler, serving in Tonking, hard by the Philippines; in Western Africa, where he built a section of the railroad which joins the Senegal River to the Upper Niger; in the Sahara, where he first made a name by capturing Timbuktu; in Madagascar, where, under the late General Gallieni, he fortified a great harbor; but this is his first visit to the New World.

* * *

THE SEVEN BILLION DOLLAR LOAN

BOTH houses of Congress passed without a single negative vote—the House on April 14 by 389 to 0, the Senate on April 17 by 84 to 0—a bill to finance the prosecution of the war against Germany. The bill authorizes the issuance

of bonds to the amount of \$5,000,000,000, of which \$3,000,000,000 will be loaned to the nations comprising the Entente Alliance; also the issuance of Treasury certificates for \$2,000,000,000 ultimately to be met by increased taxation.

The proposed bond issue is the largest in the history of the world. Both the bonds and the certificates are to bear 3½ per cent. interest. Bonds heretofore authorized, but not sold, for the acquisition of the Danish West Indies, the construction of an armor plate and nitrate plant, the Panama Canal, the speeding up of the naval program, the Alaskan Railroad, and the Mexican mobilization, authorized at an interest rate of 3 per cent., are convertible into 3½ per cent. bonds.

Under the terms of the bill the President and the Secretary of the Treasury are unhampered in making a loan of \$3,000,000,000 to the Allies. The securities which the President shall purchase are not stipulated. The President is only to acquire "the obligations of foreign Governments" in an amount not to exceed \$3,000,000,000. The obligations of the foreign countries are to be taken at par. Payment of the Treasury certificates will be provided for by new stamp and increased income taxes; also by increased taxes on profits and new customs duties on imports now on the free list.

* * *

THE MILITARY SERVICE BILL

THERE was some hesitancy manifested in Congress over accepting the recommendation of the President for an obligatory army service bill. The Military Committee of the House at the first test vote subordinated the selective draft provision to a call for volunteers. Later, however, the President and Secretary of War renewed their arguments and with such force that it was generally agreed that the opposition had capitulated and that Congress would pass a selective draft bill, operative when the President finds volunteering insufficient, as follows:

First call, eligible men between the ages of 21 and 25; second call, 26 to 32; third call, 33 to 40.

On April 17 it was announced that army enlistments were averaging 1,434 men a day, and that the naval enlisted strength had reached 71,696 of the authorized strength of 87,500.

* * *

THE VIRGIN ISLANDS

ON March 31 the transfer of the Danish West Indies to the United States was finally completed after half a century of effort. The Danish Minister, Mr. Brun, received a Treasury warrant on that day for \$25,000,000 and wireless messages were sent to the Danish and American authorities in the islands to lower the Danish flag and raise the Stars and Stripes. "By giving you this warrant," Secretary Lansing is reported to have said, "I will save you the trouble of transporting forty-eight tons of gold."

The area of the islands is 138 square miles; the population in 1911 was 27,086, of whom large numbers are free negroes engaged in the cultivation of sugar cane. The name, the Virgin Islands, of which St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John are the chief, is neither new nor altogether distinctive, since a group of contiguous islets, of which Tortola, Virgin Gorda, Anagada, and Jost-Van-Dykes are the chief, have long borne, and still bear, the title of the British Virgin Islands, while Crab Island, one of the same group, already belongs to the United States. Rear Admiral James H. Oliver, Chief of Naval Intelligence at the Navy Department, assumed the duties of Governor at St. Thomas, having been appointed by Secretary Daniels. He will serve until a permanent Government has been determined upon by Congress, and in the meantime local laws will be administered.

It is noted as an interesting coincidence that Alaska was purchased by the United States from Russia just fifty years and one day before the final transfer of the Danish West Indies, the purchase price having been \$7,200,000, or less than a third of what has now been paid for the

tiny Virgin Islands. Alaska has produced gold valued at more than \$250,000,000, and has paid for itself a hundredfold.

* * *

RELIGIOUS LIBERTY IN RUSSIA

UNDER the imperial rule, with the exception of restraints laid on the Jews, all religions might be freely professed within the Russian Empire, which includes 14,000,000 Mohammedans, about 450,000 Buddhists, and about 300,000 Pagans, largely in Northern Siberia. There are also 11,500,000 Roman Catholics, largely in Poland, and 3,500,000 Lutherans, in the Baltic Provinces. All these confessions have hitherto enjoyed freedom of profession and worship. On two sections of the population restrictions have borne heavily: on the Jews, numbering 5,200,000, and on Dissenters from the Orthodox Church, who, it is estimated, number more than 12,000,000. The restrictions on the Jews were largely a survival of the time when they were subject to Poland; laws were passed confining them to the regions they then occupied, and restricting the numbers who might inhabit Russian towns, study at Russian universities, practice professions, and so forth. All these restrictions have been removed.

A further measure of liberation applies to the Orthodox Church, which was formerly subject to the control of the Emperor. The Emperor, through the Procurator of the Synod, appointed all Archbishops and Bishops, though the Bishops had the privilege of proposing candidates. The new Government will leave the appointment of all Church officials in the hands of the Church, which, as a body, gave its formal adherence to the new order in the opening days of the revolution.

Those who will now enjoy greatly increased religious liberty in Russia are, therefore, in order of numbers, first the Orthodox Church, which wins self-government; next, the Dissenters from the Orthodox Church; and, thirdly, the Jews, to whom all positions and professions in the State are now open on equal terms with all other Russians.

NEW FIGURES IN RUSSIAN LIFE

THE first step in the Russian revolution was taken in 1905, when, on Aug. 6, an elective body of representatives of the people was created, with the name of the State's Duma. On Oct. 17 the Duma was given wider legislative powers; inviolability of the person, freedom of conscience, speech, assembly and association were guaranteed, and the Council of the Empire, transformed into a Legislative Council, was associated with the Duma as an upper house of the Legislature. The First and Second Dumas sat for only a few weeks each; the Third Duma completed its term of five years; the Fourth Duma was elected in November, 1912. In the Third and Fourth Dumas the men who accomplished the Russian revolution gained their administrative training and at the same time won the confidence of the Russian people.

M. V. Rodzianko, now President of the Duma, has attained high distinction as a leader in the liberal movement. Paul Milukoff, Secretary of Foreign Affairs, is the parliamentary leader of the Constitutional Democratic Party, which has fifty-five representatives in the Fourth Duma. He is widely known in the United States. Gutchkoff, the new Minister of War, and Kerensky, the Minister of Justice, are also tested parliamentarians. Prince Lvoff, the new Premier, was already widely known before the revolution as the head of the National Union of Zemstvos, which bear some resemblance to American State Legislatures, and which had formed a close organization among themselves to provide food, clothing and, to a large degree, munitions, for the active army. In this way the whole machinery of the new Russia was already in existence, first in the Duma and then in the Union of Zemstvos.

* * *

RELEASE OF THE SIBERIAN EXILES

THE return of thousands of political exiles from Siberia was one of the most dramatic aspects of the Russian revolution. This great act of liberation restored to Russia many of her ablest and most devoted men and women, who had worked, in their own way, for the

ends which the revolution accomplished. Among these exiles, Catharine Breshkovskaya, who has spent the greater part of a long life in exile, and who has recently been enthusiastically feted at the capital, is, perhaps, the most picturesque figure. Vera Zassulitch, whose activities date back to the days of the Terrorists who assassinated Alexander II. on the eve of his granting Russia a Constitution in 1881, is also universally known, in part from the writings of "Stepniak," the historian of the earlier revolutionists, a close friend of William Morris and of Prince Peter Kropotkin. Kropotkin also has returned to Russia after a long exile, passed for the most part in England, but including visits to the United States and France; as a philosophical biologist he gained universal recognition, laying particular stress on the principle of co-operation throughout nature.

* * *

DIFFICULTIES IN RUSSIA'S PATH

THAT serious obstacles lie in the path of the new Government in Russia was indicated by the imprisonment of the editor of the Socialist newspaper *Pravda*, "Truth," for lending himself to pro-German intrigue, counseling the soldiers to throw down their arms, to make peace without delay, and to enter on the "social revolution," which would bring them unimagined prosperity. The new intrigue set on foot in April by Germany, of which the German Socialist Deputy Scheidemann is the instrument, to involve Russian Socialists in peace negotiations at Copenhagen, further shows that the agents of the Kaiser, the instant that they saw that intrigue through the Russian Court was blocked by the revolution, turned their attention to the Russian Socialists. It is a second revelation of the same danger of which the Provisional Government is acutely conscious. Peasant risings in Samara, demanding immediate division of all land, are symptoms of a similar menace. A partial satisfaction of this demand will be reached by the distribution of the imperial domain, consisting of more than a million square miles, an area equal to the United Kingdom, France, Spain, Holland,

Belgium, Denmark, Austria and Hungary; but there will still remain the menace of the Extremists, possibly reinforced by returned Siberian exiles, many of whom are philosophical anarchists.

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THE KAISER AND THE GERMAN EMPIRE

ACCORDING to the Constitution of the German Empire, dated April 16, 1871, the supreme direction of the military and political affairs of the empire is vested in the King of Prussia, who, as German Emperor, "represents the empire internationally," and can declare war if defensive, and make peace, as well as enter into treaties with other nations, and appoint and receive Ambassadors. But when war is not merely defensive the Kaiser must have the consent of the Bundesrat, or Federal Council. In this Federal Council of sixty-one members the Kingdom of Prussia has seventeen members; the Kingdoms of Bavaria, Saxony, and Württemberg have together fourteen, six Grand Duchies have eleven, five Duchies have six, seven Principalities have seven, three free towns—Lübeck, Bremen, Hamburg—have one each, Alsace-Lorraine has three.

In the Reichstag, of 397 Deputies, Prussia has 236. In sharp contrast with the Prussian system, the Deputies are elected by universal manhood suffrage, with the result that, in the present Reichstag, there are 107 Socialists, ninety-one Centrists, ninety Liberals and Radicals, forty-four Conservatives, twenty-seven members of the German Party, eighteen Poles, and twenty Independents.

In the army Prussia greatly outweighs all the rest of the empire, providing sixteen of the twenty-five army corps, as against three for Bavaria, two for Saxony, one for Württemberg, two for Alsace-Lorraine, while there is also one corps of Prussian Guards. Under the Constitution of 1871, the whole of the land forces of the empire form a united army, under the orders of the Emperor, whom all troops are bound by the Constitution to obey conditionally. The Emperor is, therefore, responsible for every order given to any part of the German Army.

THE CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF PRUSSIA

KAISER WILHELM, as King of Prussia, has given an undertaking to reform the Prussian Constitution at the end of the war. Under the present fundamental laws, the whole of the executive and much of the legislative authority is vested in the King, who appoints all Ministers by royal decree. The King's power in the executive department is, therefore, absolute. He also possesses the power of veto over all legislation.

The Herrenhaus, the upper house of the Legislature, is closely identified with the King, since Princes of the royal family and of two other branches of the Hohenzollerns are members, as are the heads of sixteen princely families and of the nobility formed by the King, with a number of life peers chosen by the King, who may further nominate an unlimited number of members for life, or for shorter periods. The King thus has it in his power to insure a majority for any measure he may wish passed in the Herrenhaus. The lower house has 443 members, elected indirectly, as follows: The indirect electors are divided into three classes: The first consists of all electors who pay the highest taxes, to the amount of one-third of the whole; the second, of those who pay the next highest amount, down to the limits of the second one-third; the third, of all who pay the lowest taxes. The indirect electors choose electors, who choose the representatives.

Under this system, which secures control to a wealthy minority, there were elected, in 1913, 202 Conservatives, 216 Centrists, Liberals and Progressives, 10 Socialists, and 15 others.

* * *

A WORLD SHORTAGE OF WHEAT

PRESIDENT WILSON, in his proclamation of April 16, drew attention to the fact that the United States will in the coming year be called upon not only to feed its own people and army, but also to make very large contributions to the feeding of England, France, and Italy; Russia, as a great wheat growing country, being probably able to feed itself. It is estimated that, in part owing

to the destruction by frost of large areas of Winter wheat, the United States will this year produce less wheat than in average years by at least 26,000,000 bushels, though a part of this may be made up by Spring sowing over the frost-killed areas. The whole of Canada's coming supply of wheat has already been bought by the British Government, Canada having produced in 1915 336,258,000 bushels of wheat, one-fifth of which came into the United States.

Certain causes have contributed to bring about this world-wide wheat shortage, such as the large amount of wheat and other foods destroyed by German submarines, the lack of tonnage to bring wheat to England from Australia, the unwillingness of the Argentine Republic to sell wheat to England, the closing of the Black Sea route, by which Russia's vast surplus normally reaches the rest of the world, the destruction of immense quantities of wheat during the devastation of Rumania. France faces a deficit of 127,000,000 bushels of wheat in the coming year, in part due to the lack of field labor, while the aggregate deficit of the Entente Allies for the coming year has been placed at from 190,000,000 to 216,000,000 bushels.

Two ways of meeting this deficit have been suggested, besides wider cultivation—the saving of the large percentage of wheat lost in turning it into white flour, and the cessation of brewing and distilling, thus turning millions of bushels into bread instead of liquor.

* * *

NIGHT PLOWING IN ENGLAND

EXTRAORDINARY measures have been adopted in England to meet the threatened shortage of food resulting from the submarine warfare on commerce. Two of the most picturesque of these new methods are the universal application of Sunday labor and the hastening of work on the farms by supplementing day labor by night shifts. Powerful motor tractors have taken the place of the older steam plows, already largely used in England; and these new motor-tractor plows are provided with acetylene headlights such as are used on automo-

biles at night. On one farm a motor tractor working continuously for five days and four nights plowed a tract of forty-two acres, about equal to one-sixteenth of a square mile. To cover the same tract with a horse plow would, it is estimated, have taken fifty-six days, more than ten times as long; while the motor tractor plow, working only eight hours a day, would have taken twelve days to complete the work. On the darkest nights two acetylene lamps are used; on moonlight nights no artificial light is needed. The plow cuts four furrows at once, like the American "gang plow," and the men work in five-hour shifts, with an interval of an hour between two shifts for oiling and adjusting the tractor.

* * *

BRITISH WAR PENSIONS

THE schedule of the new War Pension Grants of the British Government are as follows, the rate being the maximum weekly allowance:

Disabled soldier, including children's allowance	\$18.75
Widow with children	9.37½
Parent or guardian	3.75
Other dependents	1.25

It is estimated that the annual charge on the pension account in 1918-19 will be \$125,000,000. The following are the allowances for the children of a totally disabled man:

First child	\$1.25
Second child	1.12½
Third child	.80
For each child after the third	.62½

These payments are to be continued beyond the age of 16 in the case of apprentices receiving not more than nominal wages, or of children being educated at secondary schools, and may be granted or continued between the ages of 16 and 21 in the case of a child incapable through mental or physical infirmity of earning a living, provided the infirmity existed before the child attained the age of 16. Provision is also made for an alternative compensation to make up the deficit subject to a maximum of \$12.50 a week, plus half of any earnings prior to the war between \$12.50 and \$25 a week.

In the case of slight injuries a gratuity averaging from \$500 to \$1,000 is granted

in place of a pension. Widows are to be given half what would have been awarded to their deceased husbands had they been disabled in the highest degree. In the case of a private soldier this means \$3.87 a week. Allowances to widows are:

For the first child.....\$1.25
For the second child.....1.12½
For the third child.....90
For each child after the third......62½

The widow of a private with 8 children will get \$9.80 a week. "Unmarried wives" with dependent children are to get \$2.50 a week and children's allowances. If the unmarried wife has no dependent children she is to get \$2.50 a week for the period of the war and twelve months afterward. It is provided that a parent shall receive up to the amount of pre-war dependents of one or more sons within a total of \$3.75 a week.

* * *

GERMAN RULE IN RUMANIA

A DISPATCH from Jassy, the temporary capital of Rumania, reveals the first news of Rumanian affairs that has been permitted to leak out since the occupation of that country by the Germans. The dispatch is dated March 28, 1917, and says that in all parts of Rumania women, old and young, have been arrested on the pretext of being related to members of the Government. Elderly magistrates and doctors are also among those who have been seized and imprisoned. The majority are being sent to Bulgaria and Turkey. Among those arrested is the mother of the Prime Minister. The situation in the country districts, where the population is kept in a state of terror by robberies, fires, and incessant requisitions, systematically carried out, is worse than that in the towns.

A dispatch from Zurich dated March 26 says that approximately 1,100 Rumanians of Transylvania have been sentenced by Austro-Hungarian courts-martial to terms of penal servitude varying from thirty years to three years. The entire property of more than 600 Rumanians of Transylvania has been confiscated by the Hungarian Government. Practically all these victims of Hungarian persecution were Rumanians of position and education.

Among those condemned to death and

executed was a priest, Father David Pope; the former sub-prefect of Kronstadt, M. Constantine Bojta; M. Yovan Koman, a professor; M. Romulus Kristelgan, headmaster of the school at Kronstadt; M. Pompilius Dan, a private tutor; Dr. Zacharius Mountean, advocate; M. Victor Pope, chemist; Father Koman Baka, a priest, and Dr. Nicholas Hamzea, physician—all of Kronstadt. Among other victims condemned to death and executed were practically all the principal Rumanian Intellectuals of Klausenburg.

* * *

VAST QUANTITIES OF SUPPLIES

H. W. FORSTER, official Secretary of the British War Office, in moving the war estimates made some interesting statements to Parliament regarding the prodigious operations in equipping an army. As an illustration, he said, at the beginning of the war it was difficult to obtain horseshoes, which were procured from Canada and the United States, hence village blacksmiths were organized to make hand-made shoes. This output, at first, was 50,000 pairs a month; it is now 1,500,000. To illustrate the scale upon which supplies were required, he states that the War Office had to provide:

Gas helmets	25,000,000
Sand bags for the Allies.....	250,000,000
Khaki cloth, yards.....	105,000,000
Flannel, yards	115,000,000

The khaki cloth and flannel together measured 111,000 miles, enough to go four and a half times around the earth at the Equator. Another interesting statement was that the typhoid fever cases were fifteen times higher among those who had not been inoculated than among the inoculated, and the death ratio seventy times higher among those not inoculated.

* * *

FIGHTING A BILLION ENEMIES

OMITTING China, which is giving every indication of an intention to enter the war on the side of the Allies, the Central Powers, with a population of 157,878,000, are at war with fourteen nations totaling a population of 1,003,681,000. This vast number is divided as follows:

ENTENTE-AMERICAN ALLIES

Country.	Area (Sq. Miles.)	Population.
United States	3,627,557	101,740,000
Philippines	115,026	8,643,000
Great Britain	121,316	46,407,000
British possessions	12,660,460	388,036,000
France	207,129	39,700,000
French colonies	3,998,713	49,725,000
Russia	8,361,708	174,100,000
Finland	144,249	3,197,000
Italy	110,688	35,598,000
Italian colonies	458,162	1,450,000
Japan, including Formosa and Chosen	245,641	72,818,000
Belgium	11,373	7,658,000
Belgian Congo	913,127	20,000,000
Portugal	35,499	5,958,000
Portuguese colonies	808,107	9,280,000
Rumania	53,934	7,508,000
Serbia	33,107	4,622,000
Montenegro	5,475	435,000
Cuba	45,881	2,469,000
Panama	32,330	337,000
Brazil	3,292,000	24,000,000
Total	34,282,082	1,003,681,000
CENTRAL POWERS		
Germany	209,793	68,059,000
German colonies	1,026,022	12,287,000
Austria-Hungary	261,023	51,505,000
Turkey	682,239	21,274,000
Bulgaria	44,056	4,753,000
Total	2,223,133	157,878,000

* * *

THE \$5,000,000,000 bond issue authorized by Congress in April amounts to about one-tenth of the national income of the United States last year, as is shown by the following statistics of the financial strength of the country:

Annual national income	\$50,000,000,000
Total bank resources	35,000,000,000
Individual deposits	24,000,000,000
Cash held by the banks	2,500,000,000
Total gold stock in the country	3,000,000,000
Available additional commercial credits on basis of present cash holdings	6,000,000,000

* * *

A BRITISH WAR MUSEUM

A COMMITTEE has been formed by authority of Parliament to establish a national war museum. The idea is to reconstruct for future generations the story of the British share in the war. The chief categories of exhibits will be relics and records. There will be separate departments to illustrate the work of the sailors, soldiers, and munition workers. The nucleus of these collections is already in the hands of the Admiralty,

the War Office, and the Ministry of Munitions. The aim will be to include examples of the following:

1. Material used by the British forces —guns, rifles, bayonets, trench weapons, tanks, submarines, &c.
2. Trophies captured from the enemy.
3. Souvenirs found on the battlefield.
4. New inventions employed in munition works at home.
5. Literature of the war—books, trench magazines, &c.
6. Maps of the war.
7. Music of the war—trench tunes, marching songs, &c.
8. Art of the war, including trench drawings.
9. Placards issued by the Government for recruiting, economy, &c.
10. Medals and decorations.
11. Autograph letters by distinguished actors in the war.
12. Civilian souvenirs, such as "flag-day" relics.

* * *

THE effect of the entry of the United States on the side of the Allies is shown by the following changes in foreign exchanges as quoted on April 12: Sterling, 4.76 1/4, against 4.73 9-16 low in 1916, and 4.50 low in 1915; Francs, 5.70 1/4, against 6.08 1/2 low in 1916, 6.02 low in 1915. Italian lire rose 24 points in the week ending April 12, 1917. Rubles rose 20 points.

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THE FOREIGN-BORN POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES

THE number of citizens of foreign birth in the United States in 1917 is 14,500,000, while 20,500,000 native Americans have either a foreign-born father or a foreign-born mother, and 14,000,000 had both parents born abroad. Of the total 100,000,000 population of the United States 54,000,000 are of native white ancestry. Since the foundation of the Government the total immigration to the United States from Great Britain has been 4,000,000; from Germany, 6,000,000; from Ireland, 4,000,000; from Scandinavia, 2,000,000. Up to 1890, before the heavy influx began from Russia and Italy, the total immigration to the United States was 15,689,000, of

which one-third was German. After 1890, of the 17,000,000 immigrants only 1,023,000 were Germans.

The following tables compiled by the Geographic Magazine convey an idea of the distribution of the larger groups of foreign-born citizens:

CANADIANS

Massachusetts	300,000
Michigan	190,000
New York	125,000
Maine	75,000
New Hampshire	55,000
Illinois	50,000
California	50,000
Total in United States	1,164,000

ITALIANS

New York	470,000
Pennsylvania	190,000
New Jersey	115,000
Massachusetts	90,000
Illinois	75,000
California	60,000
Connecticut	55,000
Ohio	40,000
Total in United States	1,335,000

AUSTRO-HUNGARIANS

Pennsylvania	375,000
New York	360,000
Illinois	200,000
Ohio	160,000
New Jersey	100,000
Wisconsin	40,000
Minnesota	38,000
Michigan	38,000
Connecticut	37,000
Total in United States	1,080,000

ENGLISH, SCOTCH, WELSH

New York	195,000
Pennsylvania	170,000
Massachusetts	125,000
Illinois	90,000
New Jersey	65,000
California	60,000
Ohio	60,000
Michigan	55,000
Total in United States	1,145,000

GERMANS

New York	430,000
Illinois	325,000
Wisconsin	235,000
Pennsylvania	210,000
Ohio	190,000
Michigan	125,000
New Jersey	115,000
Minnesota	95,000
Iowa	85,000
Missouri	80,000
California	75,000
Indiana	70,000
Nebraska	70,000
Texas	60,000
Maryland	50,000
Kansas	45,000
Total in United States	2,640,000

RUSSIANS AND FINNS

New York	560,000
Pennsylvania	260,000
Illinois	150,000
Massachusetts	130,000
New Jersey	95,000
Michigan	70,000
Connecticut	55,000
Ohio	55,000
Minnesota	40,000
Wisconsin	35,000
North Dakota	35,000
Total in United States	1,669,000

IRISH

New York	370,000
Massachusetts	225,000
Pennsylvania	160,000
Illinois	90,000
New Jersey	85,000
Connecticut	55,000
California	50,000
Ohio	40,000
Rhode Island	35,000
Missouri	30,000
Total in United States	1,330,000

SCANDINAVIANS

Minnesota	240,000
Illinois	165,000
Wisconsin	95,000
New York	90,000
Washington	70,000
Iowa	70,000
North Dakota	70,000
California	50,000
Massachusetts	50,000
Michigan	37,000
Nebraska	37,000
South Dakota	35,000
Total in United States	1,209,000

In the omitted States the number of foreign-born citizens in the foregoing classifications is fairly proportional, ranging from 30,000 in the more populous States to 4,000 or 5,000 in the Southern and smaller States. The foreign-born seem to prefer urban life, as 23,000,000 out of 35,000,000 live in cities. Only one-fifth of the population of New York and Chicago is of native white ancestry. Less than a third of the populations of Boston, Cleveland, Pittsburgh, Detroit, Buffalo, San Francisco, Milwaukee, Newark, Minneapolis, Jersey City, Providence, St. Paul, Worcester, Scranton, Paterson, Fall River, Lowell, Cambridge, and Bridgeport are of native ancestry.

Though the foreign-born constitute one-seventh of the nation, nearly one-fourth of the arm-bearing strength of the country is represented in this class.

The Battle of Arras

Scenes of Infernal Splendor on the First Day of the New British Offensive

By Philip Gibbs

[Published by arrangement with The London Chronicle]

At dawn on Easter Monday, April 9, 1917, the British armies began a tremendous offensive on a wide front between Lens and St. Quentin, including Vimy Ridge, that great, grim hill which dominates the plain of Douai and the coal fields of Lens and the German positions around Arras. Philip Gibbs has depicted the terrors of that first day's fighting in the following memorable description:

TODAY began another titanic conflict which the world will hold its breath to watch because of all that hangs upon it. I have seen the fury of this beginning and all the sky on fire with it, the most tragic and frightful sight that men have ever seen, with infernal splendor beyond words. The bombardment which went before the infantry assault lasted several days, and reached a great height yesterday. When coming from the south I saw it for the first time. Those of us who knew what would happen today—the beginning of another series of battles, greater perhaps than the struggle of the Somme—found ourselves yesterday filled with tense, restless emotion. Some of us smiled with a kind of tragic irony because it was Easter Sunday. In the little village behind the battle lines the bells of the French churches were ringing gladly because the Lord had risen, and on the altar steps priests were reciting splendid words of faith—“Resurrexi et adhuc et cum sum, Alleluia.”

The earth was glad yesterday. For the first time this year the sun had a touch of warmth in it—although patches of snow still stayed white under the shelter of banks—and the sky was blue and the light glinted on wet tree trunks and in furrows of new plowed earth.

As I went up the road to the battle lines, I passed a battalion of British

troops, who are fighting today, standing in a hollow square with bowed heads while the chaplain conducted the Easter service. It was Easter Sunday, but no truce of God. I went to a field outside Arras and looked into the ruins of the cathedral city. The cathedral itself stood clear in the sunlight, with a deep black shadow where its roof and aisles had been. Beyond was a ragged pinnacle of stone, once the glorious Town Hall, and the French barracks and all the broken streets going out to the Cambrai road. It was hell in Arras, though Easter Sunday. The enemy was flinging high explosives into the city, and clouds of shrapnel burst above black and green. All around the country, too, his shells were exploding in a scattered, aimless way. From the British side there was a great bombardment all along Vimy Ridge, above Neuville St. Vaast and sweeping around St. Nicholas and Blangy, two suburbs of Arras, and then southwest of the city on the ridge above the road to Cambrai. It was one continuous roar of death, and all the batteries were firing steadily. I watched the shells burst, and some of them were monsters, rising in great, lingering clouds above the German lines.

There was one figure in this landscape of war who made some officers about me laugh. He was a French plowman who upholds the traditions of war. Zola saw him in 1870. I have seen him on the edge of another battlefield, and here he was again, driving a pair of sturdy horses and his plow across the sloping field, not a furlong away from a village where German shells were raising a rosy cloud of brick dust. So he gave praise to the Lord on Easter morning and prepared for the harvests which shall be gathered after the war.

Scenes Behind the Front.

All behind the front of battle there was great traffic. All that modern warfare means in organization and in preparation for the enormous operation was here in movement. I had just come from the British outpost lines down south, from the silence of that great desert which the enemy has left in the wake of his retreat east of Bapaume and Péronne, and from that open warfare with village fighting, where small bodies of British infantry and cavalry have been clearing the countryside of rearguard posts. Here round about Arras was concentration for the old form of battle, the attack upon intrenched positions, fortified hills, and great natural fortresses defended by masses as before the battles of the Somme.

For miles on the way in front were great camps, great stores, and restless activity. Everywhere supply columns of food for men and guns moved forward in an endless tide. Transport mules passed in long trails, field batteries went up to add to the mass of metal ready to pour fire upon the German lines. It was a vast circus of the world's great war, and everything that belongs to the machinery of killing streamed on and on; columns of ambulances for the rescue, for that other side of the business, came in procession, followed by an army of stretcher bearers—more than I have ever seen before—marching cheerily as though in a pageant. In some of the ambulances were army nurses, and the men marching on the roads waved their hands to them, and they laughed and waved back. There were greetings which made one's heart go soft awhile. In the fields by the roadside men were resting, lying on the wet earth between two spells of long marching, or encamped in rest—the same kind of men whom I saw on July 1 of last year, some of them the same men, clean shaven, gray eyed, so young and so splendid to see. Some of them sat between their stacked rifles writing letters home, and the tide of traffic passed them and flowed on to the edge of the battlefields where today they are fighting.

I went up in the darkness, long before

light broke today, to see the opening of the battle. The roads were quiet until I drew near to Arras, and then onward there was the traffic of marching men going up to the fighting lines.

In the darkness there were hundreds of little red lights, the glow of cigarette ends. Outside one camp a battalion was marching away, and on the bank above them the band was playing them out with fifes and drums. On each side of me as I passed by the men were densely massed, and they were whistling and singing and calling out jests and gibes—wonderful lads that they are. Away before them were the fires of death, to which they were going very steadily, with a tune on their lips, carrying rifles and shovels and iron rations, while the rain played a tattoo on their steel hats.

I went to a place a little outside of Arras on the west side. It was not quite dark because there was a kind of suffused light from the hidden moon so I could see the black mass of the cathedral city, the storm centre of this battle, and away behind me, to the left, the tall broken towers of Mount St. Eloi, white and ghostly, looking across to Vimy Ridge. The bombardment was now in full blast. All the British batteries, too many to count, were firing, a thousand gun flashes winking and blinking from hollows and hiding places.

All their shells were rushing through the sky as though flocks of great birds were in flight, and all were bursting over the German positions with long flames which rent the darkness and waved sword blades of quivering light along the ridges. The earth opened and great pools of red fire gushed out. Star shells burst magnificently, pouring down a golden rain.

Mines were exploded east and west of Arras and in the wide sweep from Vimy Ridge to Blangy southward, and voluminous clouds, all bright with the glory of infernal fire, rolled up to the sky. The wind blew strongly across, beating back the noise of the guns, but the air was all filled with the deep roar and slamming knocks of single heavies and the drumfire of the field guns.

The first attack was at 5:30. A few

minutes before 5:30 the guns almost ceased fire, so that there was a strange, solemn hush. We waited and our pulses beat faster than the second hands.

"They're away!" said a voice by my side. The bombardment broke out again with new and enormous effects of fire and sound. The enemy was shelling Arras heavily, and black shrapnel and high explosives came over from his lines, but the British gunfire was twenty times as great.

Around the whole sweep of his lines green lights rose. They were signals of distress and his men were calling for help. It was dawn now, but clouded and stormsweped. A few airmen came out with the wind tearing at their wings, but they could see nothing in the mist and driven rain.

I went down to the outer ramparts of Arras. The eastern suburb of Blangy seemed already in British hands. On the higher ground beyond the British were fighting forward. I saw two waves of infantry advancing against the enemy's trenches. Protected by the barrage of field guns, they went in a slow, leisurely way, not hurried, although the enemy's shrapnel was searching for them.

"Grand fellows," said an officer lying next to me on the wet slope. "Oh, topping!"

Fifteen minutes afterward some men came back. They were British wounded and German prisoners. I met the first of these walking wounded. Afterward they were met on the roadside by medical officers who patched them up there and then before they were taken to the field hospitals in the ambulances.

From these men wounded by shrapnel and machine gun bullets I heard the first news of the progress. They were bloody and exhausted, but they claimed success. * * *

Advance of Four Miles

The British swept the Germans out of Arras and went on stolidly through the enemy's trench system to Feuchy, in the marshes below the River Scarpe, four

miles east of Arras. The enemy was afraid of an attack, and in the night had withdrawn all but rearguard posts to trenches further back, where he resisted fiercely.

The enemy's trench system south of Arras was enormously strong, but the British bombardment had pounded it, and the infantry went through without much loss to the reserve support trench, and then on to a chain of posts in front of Harvest trench, which was strongly held, and, after heavy fighting with bombs and bayonets, to Observatory Ridge, from which for two years and a half the enemy looked down, directing the fire of his batteries against the French and British positions.

South of Tilloy there were two formidable positions, called the Harp and Telegraph Hill, the former being a fortress of trenches shaped like an Irish harp, the latter rising to a high mound. These were taken with the help of tanks, which advanced upon them in their leisurely way, climbed up the banks and over the parapets, sitting for a while to rest, and then waddling forward again, shaking machine gun bullets from their steel flanks and pouring a deadly fire into the enemy's position, and so mastering the ground.

North of the Scarpe—that is, northeast of Arras—the whole system of trenches was taken as far as the Maison Blanche Wood, and north again along Vimy Ridge the Canadians achieved a heroic success by gaining this high, dominating ground, which was the scene of some of the fiercest French battles in the first part of the war and which is a great wall defending Douai.

It was reckoned up to noon today that over 3,000 prisoners had been taken. They were streaming down to the prisoners' camps and to the British who pass them on the roads they are the best proof of a victorious day. After the retreat from Bapaume and Péronne, this news should be a thunderbolt in Germany, tearing the scales from the blind and raising anew a cry for peace.

Seven Days' Fighting at Arras

THE well-kept secret of where the British proposed to make a new thrust in the Spring was suddenly disclosed on the morning of Easter Monday, April 9. It was an offensive along a front of forty-five miles, having for its immediate objective Lens at one end and St. Quentin at the other. This is the struggle which has become known as the battle of Arras, although at the end of seven days' fighting the scene has shifted considerably to the east of the city which has given its name to the battle. The Hindenburg line, on which the Germans were relying when they fell back from the Somme, was pierced within a week, leaving them in the awkward position of having to form a new defensive line without adequate preparation.

The bombardment of the German positions during the four days preceding the opening of the offensive on April 9 was as intense and as sustained as the artillery fire before and during the other great battles on the western front. Eye-witnesses even declare that it has been more concentrated and destructive than at the Somme and Verdun. The British guns were very numerous, of great calibre, and supplied with such vast quantities of ammunition that their "curtains of fire" were terrible realities.

Fierce Aerial Fighting

The battle of Arras has eclipsed all previous battles in aerial operations. During the four days before the battle began British airplanes literally swarmed in the sky, and the fighting in the air was on far the largest scale up to date. The German aviators were outnumbered many times over. Throughout the battle the British airplanes were constantly active despite the most unfavorable weather conditions, with snow, sleet, bitterly cold wind, and rain. The whole week's fighting was carried out, not in pleasant April sunshine, but in wintry weather which added its own gloom to the horrors of war.

The principal object of the aviators was to photograph the enemy's new positions, and, incidentally, to bombard strategic points behind the German front.

Other squadrons, protecting those whose business was reconnoitring and observation, also went up for fighting purposes only. Duels, skirmishes, and engagements of all kinds took place between the British and German airplanes for the mastery of the air. In the numerous fights that ensued, the British, according to their own reports, had twenty-eight machines missing, most of them shot down behind the enemy's lines. According to the German reports, the number of British airplanes destroyed was forty-four. On the other hand, the Germans lost fifteen airplanes and ten balloons, while the British drove to the ground thirty-one additional machines, which, according to Sir Douglas Haig's report on April 7, "must have been totally destroyed." That the British Flying Corps achieved its purpose was indicated by the statement that large tracts of the enemy's country for many miles in the rear had been photographed, over 1,700 photographs having been taken behind the lines.

The bombarding squadrons also were successful. Seventeen raids were carried out, and over eight tons of bombs were dropped on enemy aerodromes, ammunition depots, and railroads. The air fighting was wholly over enemy territory, and in one instance the British airmen penetrated fifty miles behind the German lines. The British established beyond question their supremacy in the air by reason of the much larger number of machines at their disposal and the greater dash and resourcefulness of their aviators.

Beginning of British Offensive

The British opened the battle on April 9 with a terrific offensive on a twelve-mile front north and south of Arras, penetrating the German positions to a depth of from two to three miles and capturing many important fortified points, including the famous Vimy Ridge, where the Canadians led the attack. In this first onset nearly 6,000 prisoners, mostly Bavarians, Württembergers, and Hamburgers, were taken, as well as large quantities of artillery and war material.

The line of advance extended from Givenchy-en-Gohelle, southwest of Lens, to Henin-sur-Cojeul, (the village of Henin on the Cojeul River,) southeast of Arras. All the fighting was against dominating positions on high ground, some of which had been held by the Germans for two years and were protected by wide belts of barbed wire.

The capture of Vimy Ridge was particularly important, because it protects the French coal fields lying to the eastward. Along the greater part of the front the advance of the British infantry was strenuously opposed. Near Arras the Germans made a determined stand. The famous redoubt known as the Harp was captured with virtually the whole German battalion defending it. Several "tanks" figured in this operation. Along the railroad running through the valley of the Scarpe the British made good progress, while on the Lens branch of the line they captured Maison Blanche Wood.

The first day of the battle ended with the British having accomplished their most successful day's work on the western front since the beginning of the war. The attack had hit the hinge of the recent German retreat from Arras to the Aisne and upset the plans of the German General Staff, who had expected the offensive to be renewed in the valley of the Somme. The capture of Vimy shifted the pivot of the whole German retreat and placed the enemy in a position of danger.

The second day of the battle, April 10, saw the British, despite heavy snowstorms and bitterly cold weather, continuing their advance along the greater part of the twelve-mile front from Givenchy to Henin, capturing many more prisoners and guns, with quantities of all kinds of war material. The infantry pushed forward as far as the outskirts of Monchy-le-Preux, five miles east of Arras, capturing a height protecting Monchy and threatening the entire German line south of the Arras-Cambrai road. Monchy was for a while the central point of interest in the whole world war.

Further north the British captured defenses on both sides of the Scarpe River.

They also took the remaining positions on the northern end of Vimy Ridge, thus clearing it entirely of the enemy, and progressed in the direction of Cambrai and St. Quentin. The northern pivot of the Hindenburg line was now turned. The artillery support for the British infantry attacks was so thorough that casualties were proportionately light. The British artillery also made a record for long-range firing. Aided by information from the aviators, the gunners were able to concentrate their fire on German reinforcements ten miles away and so prevent them from helping to counterattack.

The prisoners, who numbered 11,000 at the end of the second day, were penned up behind barbed wire fences till they could be sent rearward. British troops waiting their turn to go up to the front congregated outside the fences and chatted amicably with those Germans who could speak English, and gave them chocolate and cigarettes. One observer says that all animosity between the soldiers disappeared the moment they were no longer trying to kill one another.

Unusually cold weather for the time of year, with a heavy fall of snow, greatly impeded operations on the third day, April 11. Nevertheless, the British kept on pushing forward and captured the village and heights of Monchy-le-Preux and the neighboring hamlet of La Bergère. Cavalry and a "tank" contributed to the capture of Monchy, one of the key positions between the Scarpe and Sensée Rivers, which the Germans had strongly organized. Fierce fighting took place in the village streets. The Germans fired from the windows and rooftops of houses, and made every effort to hold this vital position. The British made satisfactory progress at other points. They repelled two vigorous counterattacks and pressed forward down the eastern slopes of Vimy Ridge. The chief result at the end of the third day was that the British had been able to consolidate their gains and move forward their artillery.

Germans Beaten Off

On the fourth day of the battle, April 12, the British made substantial progress east of Arras, capturing the villages of

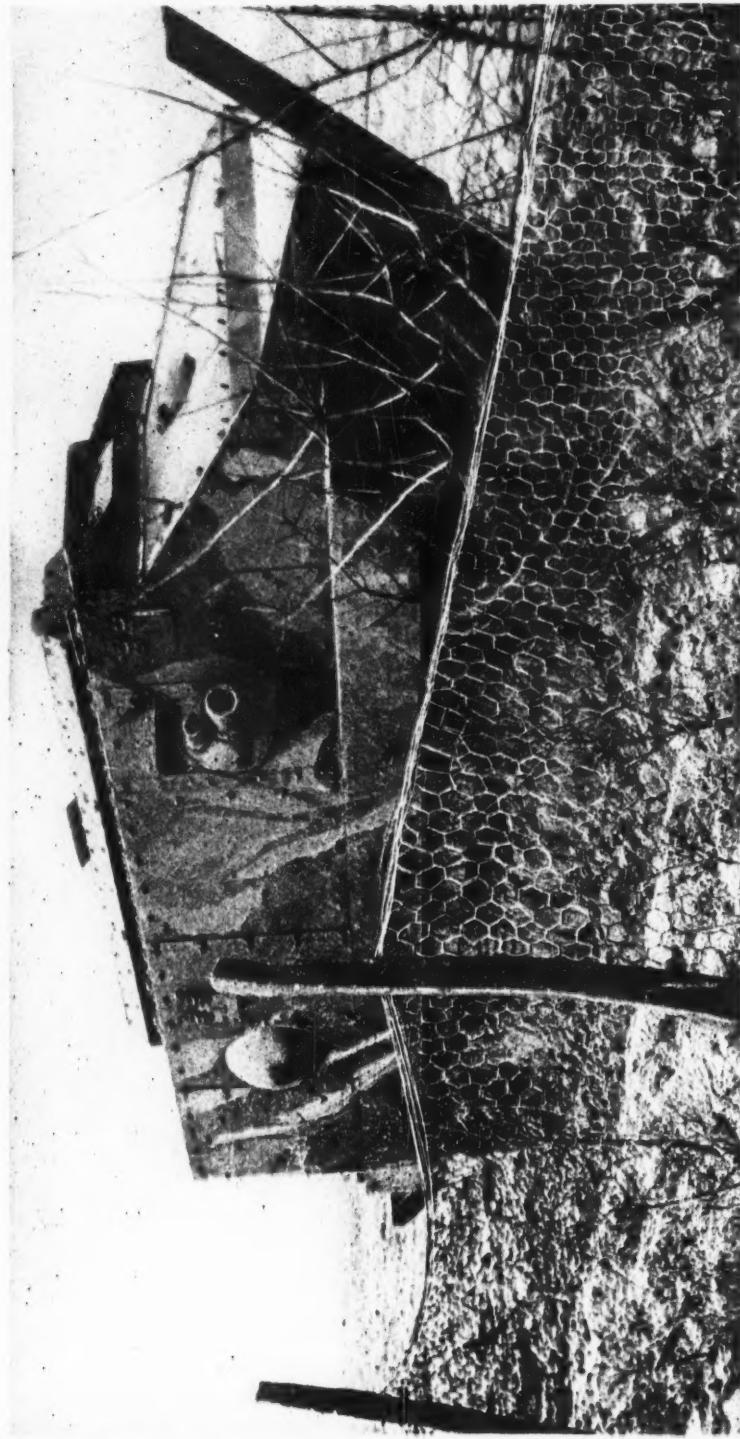
COUNCIL OF NATIONAL DEFENSE AND ITS ADVISORY BOARD



This Council, Which Is Mobilizing the Nation's Resources, Consists of the Cabinet and a Civilian Advisory Board. Seated, Left to Right: Secretaries Houston, Daniels, Baker, Lane, and Wilson; Standing, Left to Right: Grosvenor B. Clarkson, Secretary; Julius Rosenwald, Chairman of Committee on Supplies; Bernard M. Baruch, in Charge of Raw Materials; Daniel Willard, Transportation; Dr. F. H. Martin, Medicine and Sanitation; Dr. Hollis Godfrey, Science and Research; Howard Coffin, Munitions, and W. S. Gifford, Director of the Council.

(© Harris & Ewing)

NEW FRENCH "TANK" USED IN ATTACK ON ST. QUENTIN



This New Model of "Land Dreadnought," an Improvement on the British Armored Battle Car, Has a Wire Cutter in Front
(International Film Service)

Wancourt and Heninel to the southeast, some positions north of the Scarpe River, and driving the Germans from their last foothold on Vimy Ridge to the northeast. The work of straightening the new line was continued by clearing the enemy out of a number of "pockets." Monchy remained the central point of the battle. There the British attack and the German defense converged. The German troops were ordered to stop the British advance at all costs, and it was not until large numbers of British field batteries were brought into play that the Germans were definitely beaten off.

On the fifth day, April 13, a new turn was given to the battle of Arras. By a sudden sweep northward from their new positions east of the city the British drove the Germans back on a twelve-mile front, capturing six villages and seriously threatening the important coal-mining centre of Lens. This new line of advance extended from the Scarpe River to Loos, north of Lens. The town of Vimy was captured, as well as Ancre, which, with Lieven, protects Lens from the southwest. The depth of the advance was about a mile. Sir Douglas Haig's bulletin at the end of the day's fighting reported that the number of guns captured during the five days' operations had reached 166, and the aggregate prisoners 13,000. But the most significant statement by the British Commander in Chief was that the British were "astride" the Hindenburg line, which the Germans had believed impregnable.

The Germans were now forced to fall back in the direction of an emergency auxiliary line from Drocourt to Quéant, endeavoring at the same time to complete the new defensive positions on which they were compelled to rely once the Hindenburg line failed them. On April 13 the British also attacked on a wide front west of Le Catelet, from Metz-en-Couture, south of the Bapaume-Cambrai railroad, to north of Hargicourt, a distance of about nine miles.

On the French section of the front during the first five days of the battle there was no attempt at an offensive, the chief business of the French being to keep the Germans occupied while the British were making their great thrust

at the Hindenburg line between Lens and St. Quentin. The French maintained a constant artillery fire between the Somme and the Aisne until the sixth day of the British drive. Then they launched a fierce offensive south of St. Quentin and, despite the desperate resistance by the Germans, succeeded in carrying several lines of trenches between the Somme and the railroad running from St. Quentin to the Oise. This was followed by a vigorous attack in co-operation with the British, who were advancing on the city from the northwest.

The battle of Arras had by the sixth day, April 14, really become the battle of Lens and St. Quentin. The Germans had now brought up large reinforcements to prevent the rolling up of the Hindenburg line, but the British pushed forward unchecked toward both Lens and St. Quentin. In the morning the town of Lievin, southwest of and adjoining Lens, was captured, with considerable quantities of war material. In the afternoon the British seized Cité St. Pierre, northwest of Lens, and advanced along the whole front from the Scarpe River to the south of Loos, and reached points two to three miles east of Vimy Ridge. South of the Scarpe attacks and counterattacks alternated all day. The British made further progress on a wide front north and south of the Bapaume-Cambrai road. At the southern end of the front the British fought their way forward south and east to within a few hundred yards of St. Quentin and carried the village of Fayet at the point of the bayonet. The French to the south of St. Quentin bombarded the German positions in front of the city and between the city and the Oise. At the end of the day's fighting the fall of both Lens and St. Quentin was imminent.

The battle raged with undiminished fury throughout the night and all next day, April 15, when between 4 and 5 in the morning the first British troops entered Lens. The occupation of the district around Lens marked the recovery for France of the country's most valuable coal fields. At the other end of the forty-five-mile line the British had practically won their way into the suburbs of St. Quentin, with the Germans making a stubborn last stand in the city itself.

The Canadians' Achievement On Vimy Ridge

TO the Canadians was given the honor of leading the attack on Vimy Ridge, where last year the French lost thousands of men in an attempt to hold that dominating height. Once before the British gained the crest of the ridge only to have to abandon it under a tremendous concentration of German guns. Throughout the Winter the Canadians held a footing on the ridge below the German lines, but early in the first day of the battle of Arras the Canadians were on top looking down on the plain of Douai. They carried the position with comparatively little fighting and few casualties, pushing from one line to the other in a rapid, methodical manner.

An observer who saw the Canadians set off at dawn to attack the German positions describes them as having gone away cheering and laughing through the mud, which made them look like scarecrows. They followed closely and warily the barrage of the British guns, the most concentrated artillery fire ever seen, and at the end of an hour had taken the first German trenches, including the whole front line system of defense above Neuville St. Vaast, by La Folie Farm and La Folie Wood, and up by Thelus, where they began to encounter serious resistance.

The Germans were intrenched in long, deep tunnels, but when the Canadians once reached the position with fixed bayonets the Germans were glad to surrender and escape from the British artillery fire that had been directed on them. Most of the Germans in the dugouts were made prisoner without even a show of fight. On Vimy Ridge alone the Canadians took more than 2,000 prisoners. By 3 o'clock in the afternoon the Canadians had occupied the whole of Vimy Ridge with the exception of a strongly fortified elevation on the left of Hill 145. Artillery fire which blew the barbed wire entanglements to pieces made the Canadian advance easier. One report described the top of the ridge as having been literally blown off by the

British big guns. Another dispatch, that of The Associated Press staff correspondent, dated April 10, says:

The Canadians did not for a moment underestimate the seriousness of the task before them in taking Vimy. They knew that the artillery had paved the way to success, but were frankly surprised when they saw what the guns had actually done. They found hundreds of Germans holding up their hands over the bodies of their fallen comrades and begging for something to eat. These men said they had been cut off for days from all supplies by the steadiness of the artillery fire. They could not retire, and no relief supply columns from the rear ever reached the neighborhood of where the shells had been falling in continuous showers.

Some of the stronger redoubts, manned by machine-gun detachments, in which were found men of the highest morale in the German Army, resisted for several hours. But, closing around them during the night, the Canadians silenced all resistance.

According to The Toronto Mail and Empire correspondent, Canadian artillery, as well as infantry, helped to take Vimy Ridge. On April 10 he wrote:

The Canadian artillery has played the strongest part which it has yet been called upon to do. The full story will probably show that the Canadian gunners, who have frequently earned special commendation in the final tests before proceeding to France, paved and maintained the way for the storming of the position, which, though much coveted, has hitherto been regarded as almost impregnable.

The military importance of this ridge has made it the centre of fierce struggles during the past two years, the Germans, the French, and the British all having heavy casualties at various times. This time, however, there is reason to believe that the Canadian losses will be moderate.

The capture of 2,000 prisoners by the Canadians is not surprising, as the whole ridge was honeycombed with dugouts, in which the Germans sheltered themselves.

Up to the present moment the great offensive had been held up just at the point below the Canadian lines, which fact caused Vimy Ridge to be styled the "hinge" of the enemy's retreat from the Somme, and the Canadians have been very impatient for the "hinge" to move. I also understand that Canadian cavalry enjoyed more scope in this action.

Anglo-Canadians are rejoicing at the good news, and Sir Robert Borden has sent a congratulatory message to General Byng, who commands the Canadian forces. The

entire press rings with the exploits of the Canadians, as it did at the battle of Ypres, but with more jubilation.

Further light is thrown on the work of the Canadians by the London correspondent of The Canadian Associated Press:

"Before midday one Canadian cage had 500 prisoners," said an informant reaching London today. "One of the first things which happened before daylight was the blowing up of an enemy ammunition dump on Vimy Ridge. The shock was momentarily paralyzing locally, but was a mere incident to what followed. The Canadians waited in the dark, with a cold rain pelting and a bitter wind driving over the desolate ground. The artillery had been pounding away for days, and every shell we sent over had its own particular spot to fall on, for the British airplanes had done wonderful scouting work in preparation for this.

The scouting work and the artillery fire which followed made possible the results already achieved by our infantry. Our heavy guns were first brought there three days after Christmas. They were put in position in the morning and began firing the same afternoon. They have gone on ever since, so there is some idea of what is meant by artillery preparation.

"There is not the least doubt the results have given every satisfaction, not merely in a spectacular sense, which the mere civilian is able to appreciate, but in the more technical military sense. Competent sober estimates had reckoned that the Canadian divisions could not advance without losing a third of their strength, but this estimate has been entirely falsified. The casualty lists are heavy, but less heavy than any competent estimate imagined. The air service and artillery made this possible."

The Canadian press is able to vouch for the interesting fact that General Byng in the earlier stages of the war, and before he assumed the Canadian command, was in command of the English troops who were then holding the Vimy Ridge line.

At Vimy Ridge for the first time in history the Stars and Stripes appeared on a European battlefield. The story is told in an unofficial dispatch received at Ottawa from the Canadian Army Headquarters in Europe:

To a young Texan who came to Ontario to enlist and who is now lying wounded in the hospital belongs the honor of first carrying

the American flag into battle in the European war, into which the United States, as a belligerent, has just entered. He went up to the assault at Thelus carrying the Stars and Stripes on his bayonet and fell thus.

As soon as King George learned of the first day's fighting he sent the following message to Sir Douglas Haig:

The whole empire will rejoice at the news of yesterday's successful operations. Canada will be proud that the taking of the coveted Vimy Ridge has fallen to the lot of her troops. I heartily congratulate you and all who have taken part in this splendid achievement.

Hill 145 was the only position that gave the Canadians serious trouble. It was an earthen fortress of the first importance, with many underground galleries and concrete emplacements for machine guns. Although isolated on three sides from the German lines, the enemy was difficult to dislodge, and it was not until the night that the Canadians after heavy and costly fighting succeeded in occupying it. The Germans hurried up reinforcements in an attempt to recapture a hill known to the British as the Pimple so as to have a vantage point to retake Hill 145. But the Canadians, on Thursday morning, (April 12,) suddenly launched an attack, and, in spite of fierce machine-gun fire from the German positions, made themselves masters of the hill and occupied the woods through which the Germans delivered their counterattacks.

Thus already in the first week of the great British offensive the Canadians have established their place as an important factor in the battle of Arras, which is still in progress. They took nearly 4,000 prisoners and large quantities of guns and material during their exploits on Vimy Ridge, and have justified their choice for the vital task assigned to them. As the casualty lists indicate, not a few of the men in the Canadian regiments are citizens of the United States who went to Canada to enlist.

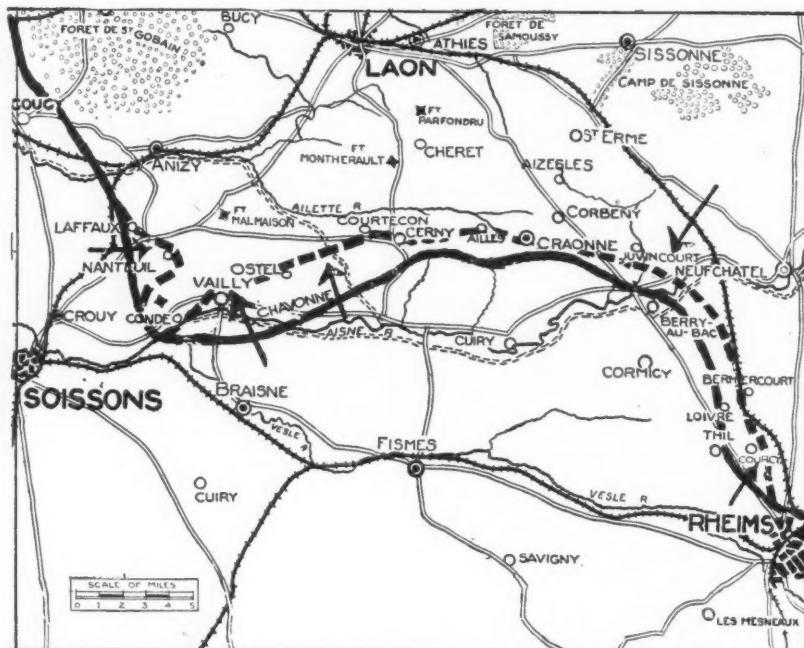


Great French Offensive Near Rheims

THE French on April 17 launched a new offensive which was regarded as the beginning of the most important advance they had made since the war began. For more than thirty months the historic City of Rheims had been a target for German guns, and the beautiful City of Soissons had been likewise in serious peril. The French line ran south from Arras, where it joined the British, to a

front of nearly forty miles. The advance on both sides of Rheims made that city a salient full of danger for the Germans, with a probability that they would be forced to withdraw much further from its neighborhood.

In the fighting, which was very bitter along the whole front from Flanders to Alsace, it was estimated that 4,000,000 men were engaged, 2,500,000 Allies and



MAP OF THE FRENCH LINE ON THE AISNE FRONT, APRIL 19, 1917

point on the River Oise near Compiègne, and then ran eastward, passing Soissons, Rheims, and Verdun, to a point almost opposite Metz, and about forty miles west of that famous German fortified city; at that point it ran due south again to St. Mihiel, and then due west, crossing the Moselle near the German border. The blow struck on April 17 was on an eleven-mile stretch east of Rheims, and on the front between Rheims and Soissons. The French troops proved irresistible, advancing from one to two miles

1,500,000 Germans. It was reported that in the battles of April 14, 15, 16, and 17 over 35,000 German prisoners had been taken by British and French together, and that the German casualties exceeded 150,000; more than 200 guns were captured and an immense amount of booty; fully 800 square miles of French territory were released.

These events seemed on the 20th to be only preliminary to even greater conflicts, perhaps the most critical of the war.

Naval Power in the Present War

By Lieutenant Charles C. Gill

United States Navy

V.—The Submarine

This article is the fifth in a series contributed to CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE by Lieutenant Gill of the superdreadnought Oklahoma—with the sanction of the United States Naval Department—for the purpose of deducing the lessons furnished by the naval events of the European war.

SINCE the outbreak of hostilities the submarine has been a conspicuous naval weapon, and German science has developed it with characteristic energy, system, and thoroughness. Early in the war the more powerful allied navies practically swept the seas of all enemy merchant ships and contained the battle fleets of the Central Powers within comparatively narrow limits. Beyond these limits, except for a few raids on commerce by surface cruisers, the naval activities of both Germany and Austria have been restricted to the use of submarines.

Considering the disadvantages inherent in underwater navigation, the results attained have been truly astonishing. In the first days of the war one small German submarine sank three British armored cruisers in less than one hour; since then German and Austrian submarines are estimated to have sunk 230,000 tons* of naval vessels and 3,600,000 tons* of merchant shipping. On Oct. 7, 1916, the U-53 appeared in Newport Harbor, exchanged official calls, read the daily papers, sent dispatches, and departed a few hours after her arrival. The next day a submarine destroyed off Nantucket four British traders and one Dutch trader. A few months ago peaceful Funchal was suddenly bombarded by a German submarine.

The underwater mine layer has become an accomplished fact—it is disturbing to think of this huge mechanical fish secretly threading the ocean high-

ways, laying its engines of destruction. In addition to all these, Captain König has smilingly introduced to us the Deutschland, a successful underwater blockade runner.

With this evidence of accomplishments it is not surprising that the submarine has seized upon the imagination. Nor has Germany, in furthering her ends, failed to take full advantage of the mystery surrounding underwater attack. It has been part of the German war plan to prepare and circulate submarine propaganda designed to strengthen hopes at home, and at the same time break down morale in enemy countries. This has resulted in a somewhat confused perspective; but it is important that the United States should search out the facts, reason to logical conclusions, and take the true measure of the U-boat.

Arm of the Weaker Combatant

The outstanding characteristic of the submarine, as the name indicates, is its ability to navigate below the surface of the water. This enables it to evade the enemy, to make a surprise attack, and to escape by hiding. These faculties are manifestly suitable for the weaker belligerent to use against the stronger enemy. Navies that dominate, that have power to seek and destroy in the open, are not dependent upon abilities to evade and to hide. It is for this reason that allied submarines have found their chief opportunity to strike in sea areas controlled by the fleets of the Central Powers, the Baltic, Dardanelles, and other waters close to Teutonic bases, while German submarines have been active in all other ocean areas within the cruising radius of their U-boats. Since the Allies control practically all the high seas, the

*Even the approximate accuracy of these figures is questionable, because of conflicting reports and the difficulty in determining whether a ship was sunk by a mine or by a torpedo in the instances where neither was seen.

field of the U-boat has been large, while the activities of allied submarines have been confined to the relatively narrow coastal waters controlled by Germany, Austria, and Turkey.

Without depreciating the utility of the submarine, it may be truly said that if the Allies had not possessed a single one they would still, in all probability, have been able to enjoy the incalculable advantages that surface control of the seas has given them. The German submarines, moreover, have not proved effective against enemy battle fleets; and in order to facilitate their commerce-destroying operations they have found it necessary, because of inherent weaknesses, to adopt methods in violation of the laws of civilized warfare. Before going deeper into the uses and limitations of the submarine it might be well to touch briefly upon some of the rules governing its legitimate employment.

Rules of International Law

The purpose of rules regulating ocean-borne intercourse in times of peace and governing both belligerent and neutral conduct in time of war is to carry out practically the principles of the freedom of the seas, and it need hardly be added that these principles are identical with those grounding all rules of right conduct at sea and on shore; namely, principles of liberty, justice, and humanity.

As weapons and other conditions change, new situations arise which may require modifications in these rules; but both in time of peace and in time of war reason calls for a general concurrence of Governments before a modified or new rule can become operative; and any belligerent instituting methods in violation of previously established regulations assumes the burden of proof to show that new conditions compel new rules in order to carry out the never-changing principles of the freedom of the seas.

There is little room for confusion of thought on this point. Unfortunately, however, it is the experience of wartime practice that military necessity and the doctrine of "might makes right" twist these rules into a bewildering tangle. One belligerent breaks a rule and

attempts to justify his conduct. The enemy, as a matter of policy, turns a deaf ear to the arguments in justification, and, seeing only the broken rule, proceeds to retaliate by breaking another rule on the ground that military necessity forces him to resort to this act of reprisal. And so one act of reprisal leads to another until unconscionable degrees of lawlessness are reached.

It has been suggested as a possible solution obviating the difficulties of drawing up a set of good working rules to govern naval operations against commerce that one sweeping sanction of immunity might suffice by which all trade ships would be allowed to carry on their peaceful pursuits unmolested in time of war as in time of peace. The objection, however, to such a rule is, that when the world is divided between nations at peace and nations at war, this rule would satisfy peoples at peace and one side of the belligerents, but the other belligerents would find it discriminatory and would oppose it as an infringement upon their rights to use the seas in accordance with principles of equity and freedom.

To deny belligerents, moreover, their right to use the seas for suppressing enemy commerce and imposing economic pressure in order to hasten the settlement of their differences, would deprive the world of what is generally looked upon, when conducted according to the rules of civilized warfare, as a humane method of re-establishing conditions of peace. It may be added that those who aim at a world peace secured by a concert of power may reasonably assert that, while the freedom of the seas is a foundation principle on which to make a world peace secure, naval power, by instituting blockades, may at times prove a humane and effective means of compelling recalcitrant Governments to observe the provisions of this peace.

Certain Established Rules

During a war, the maritime interests of belligerents and neutrals are bound to conflict; and it is impossible to give either of them unlicensed use of the seas without restricting the freedom of the other. Hence a compromise is necessary,

and so long as nations recognize a state of war as involving conditions subject to law in which both belligerents and neutrals have rights, it is manifest that rules are required to define and guarantee these rights. It will not be attempted here to examine closely the many rules drawn to govern naval warfare, some of which were still subjects of controversy when the present war began; but, as an aid to the memory, a few of the recognized and established regulations affecting the use of the submarine will be briefly outlined:

1. A blockade to be binding must be effective; that is, it must be maintained by a force sufficient to render ingress to or egress from the enemy coast line dangerous.

2. A blockade must not bar access to neutral ports or coasts.

3. During the continuance of a state of blockade no vessels are allowed to enter or leave the blockaded place without consent of the blockading authority.

4. The prohibition of contraband trade with the attendant adjudging of penalties is a belligerent right. This right can only be exercised upon the high seas and the territorial waters of the belligerents and in accordance with the rules and usages of international law. (Contraband of war may be defined as articles destined for the enemy and capable of use as an assistance to the enemy in carrying on war either ashore or afloat.)

5. Lawfully commissioned public vessels of a belligerent nation may exercise the right of visiting and searching merchant ships upon the high seas, whatever be the ship, the cargo, or the destination. If the examination of ship's papers and search show fraud, contraband, an offense in respect of blockade, or enemy service, the vessel may be seized. Force may be used to overcome either resistance or flight, but condemnation follows forcible resistance alone. In exercising these rights belligerents must conform to the rules and usages of international law.

6. When a vessel in action surrenders, (usually indicated by hauling down the national flag or showing the white flag of truce,) firing must cease on the part of the victor. To continue an attack after knowledge of surrender, or to sink a vessel after submission, is a violation of the rules of civilized warfare only permissible in cases of treachery or renewal of the action.

7. Absolute contraband, including guns, ammunition, and the like, is liable to capture on the high seas or in the territorial waters of the belligerents if it is shown to be destined to territory belonging to or occupied by the enemy, or to the armed forces of the

enemy. It is immaterial whether the carriage of the goods is direct or entails transhipment or a subsequent transport by land. Also there must be a trial and judgment of a prize court of the captor having proper jurisdiction in regard to the goods involved, whether destroyed or not.

Policy of "War Areas"

At the beginning of the war Great Britain might have taken advantage of the well-established case of our legal blockade of the Confederate States. A summary of the steps by which this civil war blockade was made legally effective will be found in the article, "American Tactics in the Present War," in *CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE* for November, 1916.

Instead of proclaiming a legal blockade of Germany, Great Britain in an Admiralty order, Nov. 2, 1914, announced military areas in the North Sea, trusting to British command of the sea, which at that time seemed undisputed. This was an unfortunate move, for the possibilities of the submarine were not considered; and Germany was able to retaliate by declaring all waters about Great Britain and Ireland a "war zone," beginning Feb. 18, 1915.

Great Britain at once realized her mistake, and by an Order in Council proclaimed a blockade of Germany, March 1, 1915. But the harm had been done, and the pernicious war area had been evolved. On Jan. 27, 1917, the British Admiralty announced that the area in the North Sea had been enlarged. This was modified Feb. 13, 1917. On Jan. 31, 1917, Germany sent to the neutral nations the "barred zone" note announcing unrestricted submarine warfare beginning on Feb. 1, 1917.

Armed Merchantmen

Merchantmen have the right to arm for defense. A merchantman may repel an attack by any enemy ship, but only a man-of-war can attack men-of-war.

According to international law the character of a ship is determined by her employment; and it is an established right of merchant vessels that they may carry arms—for defense only—without necessarily altering their status before the law as traders engaged in legitimate

peaceful pursuits. This right is well established by precedent, and although prolific of complications, it has on the whole operated to sustain the principles of freedom of the seas. Its usefulness was conspicuous in the days of piracy; and the "long toms" on board our clipper ships proved strong arguments in suppressing lawlessness.

In the heat of war, moreover, belligerents are inclined to infringe the privileges of noncombatants, and experience has shown that the right of merchant vessels to arm for defense has tended to prevent belligerents from unlawful interference with peaceful traffic. The belligerent right to stop, visit, search, and capture merchantmen is a high sovereign power, and it seems reasonable to require that the vessels authorized to exercise it should possess potential strength. It would be a somewhat absurd condition, inviting abuse and irregularity, if rules were so framed as to permit a fast enemy motor boat, manned by three or four men armed with rifles, to stop, search, and capture an ocean liner, without allowing the liner to attempt lawfully either flight or resistance. On the other hand, a motor boat, submarine, or any other duly commissioned and authorized man-of-war has the right to employ force to overcome resistance or to prevent flight; and the merchantman has no redress for damage sustained during attempted flight or resistance. In the majority of cases, it is obvious that prudence will influence merchantmen to surrender promptly in the face of a respectably powerful man-of-war rather than forfeit immunity by attempting flight or resistance.

If an armed merchantman of a neutral country on friendly terms with the warring nations should resist by force a belligerent man-of-war, the neutral Government would properly disown the act as incompatible with the relations of amity existing between the two countries. If, however, neutral rights are violated to an intolerable degree a state of armed neutrality may supplant the relations of amity, and under these unusual conditions a Government has the right and may be in duty bound to pre-

serve its neutrality by using such force as the circumstances may require; but in this delicate situation care must be exercised that force is used only in defense of neutral rights.

Blockades and Submarines

From the beginning of the war submarines have helped to prevent a close blockade of the coasts of the Central Powers, and the inability on the part of the allied navies to institute a coast line blockade strictly in accordance with the established rules of international law has led to what is generally known as a distant blockade. The so-called Orders in Council regulating this distant blockade have lengthened the contraband lists and extended the doctrine of ultimate destination until Germany's commerce with non-contiguous countries has been practically cut off.

As the effectiveness of the blockade increased, military necessity demanded that Germany do something to counteract it. The only weapon her navy could use was the submarine. Underwater attack against the blockading battle fleets met with little success; but the unscrupulous use of the submarine as a commerce destroyer brought better results. The vigorous protest of neutrals against the violation of their rights caused Germany, for a time, to make an effort to comply with the rules and usages of international law; but this effort proved ineffectual. The vulnerability of the submarine, with the increasing efficacy of the ways and means developed to safeguard merchantmen from its attack, presented to the German Government the alternative either of suffering a curtailment of submarine effectiveness or of abandoning lawful methods. Germany's decision to take the latter course was announced to the world by official notification that within a war zone embracing large areas of the high seas her submarines would sink all ships, neutral or belligerent, without warning. It was further announced that a weekly neutral steamer here and there would be spared, provided Germany's orders respecting cargo and behavior were carefully observed.

In tracing the developments leading to

this decision it is interesting to follow the various measures of retaliation adopted by both sides and to note the part taken, either directly or indirectly, by the submarine; the creation of danger zones, the indiscriminate use of mines and torpedoes, the lengthened contraband lists—all the various successive moves by which the belligerents, actuated by the policy of military necessity, have trespassed more and more upon the rights of neutrals and noncombatants. But in spite of the scientific triumph of the modern U-boat, and notwithstanding the toll of shipping sacrificed, a careful study of all sides of the question seems to lead to the conclusion that in the end the submarine will not vindicate the expectations of those who hail it as a decisive factor of modern war. The submarine may be able to prevent a close blockade by the enemy; but it does not seem to be able either to break the grip of a distant blockade or to establish an effective submarine blockade as a countermeasure.

The Submarine's Limitations

Submarines are of many different types and sizes, which may be divided into two general classes: the smaller coast-defense submarine of moderate cruising capacities, and the larger sea-going submarine with greater fighting and cruising abilities. The first-mentioned class comprises the five-hundred-ton to eight-hundred-ton submarines, and includes the familiar E, F, G, H, K, and L boats of our navy. Germany uses these types chiefly in the North Sea, Baltic Sea, and other home waters. The other and more modern class includes the larger U-boats operating on the high seas.

The most recent of Germany's large submarines may be described as the fighting consorts of the Deutschland. Although little is known positively about them, the following approximate characteristics may be attributed: tonnage, 2,000; Diesel engines of 6,000 to 8,000 horse power, giving a surface speed of 18 to 20 knots and a submerged speed of 12 to 14 knots; a cruising radius at most economical speed of about 7,000 miles; and an armament of one or two small calibre (three inch or four inch)

guns in addition to about sixteen torpedoes.

These are formidable craft, capable of doing much damage, especially if operating from a secret base supplied and provisioned by ships like the Deutschland. But they have difficulties to overcome. The problems of submarine navigation have not all been satisfactorily solved. When submerged the speed is slow, making it necessary to rise to the surface in order to overtake even moderately fast freighters. It is then that the trader's guns for defense become dangerous.

Moreover, the distance the submarine can go below the surface on a stretch is still comparatively short, probably 150 miles for the newest U-boats is an overestimate. When the limit is reached the submarine either has to remain stopped or come to the surface to recharge her batteries. If the submarine is forced to keep below the surface, besides having a reduced speed, she cannot use her guns and therefore has to draw upon her limited supply of expensive torpedoes. Nor is it an altogether easy matter to manoeuvre a submarine by periscope so as to score a hit on an alert merchantman.

Advantages of Armed Ships

Suppose a submarine on the edge of the war zone, either stopped or cruising slowly on the surface looking for merchantmen. Smoke is sighted, say, at twenty-five or thirty thousand yards. The submarine would probably manoeuvre to get in the path of the quarry and then submerge at a range of about fifteen to twenty thousand yards before there were likelihood of her being sighted by the supposedly armed trader. If the merchantman should come straight on, to destroy her is comparatively easy; but if, instead of this, a zigzag, irregular course should be steered, the submarine would have to estimate the changes through her periscope and manoeuvre to keep ahead of the merchantman, with consequently more likelihood of being discovered and less likelihood of getting near enough for a sure shot. If the periscope should be seen by the trading vessel, she would probably open fire and turn away. Shots

splashing in front of a submarine's periscope would hamper her manoeuvring abilities and the chances of getting a hit in a stern-on target steering a zigzag course would, unless close aboard, hardly be worth expending a torpedo. To catch the trader, unless a slow one, the submarine would have to come to the surface and risk destruction by gun fire.

All these limitations contribute to make the submarine vulnerable and less effective. Although nets, aircraft, and the lighter submarine chasers will not be as competent against seagoing submarines as against the smaller coast submarines, both because of the greater size of the former and because of the rougher weather and sea conditions to be contended with, still they may do some good while more effectual methods are being developed. Undoubtedly the United States Navy will be of great help in solving this problem—but it would be improper at this time to discuss our navy's share in the game.

Until means of neutralizing the submarines are found they will take great toll from merchantmen. It is folly not to realize that they are destroying many vessels, and not to acknowledge that merchantmen run risks, especially under conditions of poor visibility at night, in fog, and in mist. Early dawn is also a critical time for the trader. But it is probable, as schemes of co-operation are developed between the submarine-hunting navies and the shipping they are trying to safeguard, that these dangers will be lessened.

Future of the Submarine

The question of the future of under-water craft is conjectural, but it is possible to make some tentative deductions from the trend along which development has so far proceeded.

The submarine is always asking for a greater cruising radius, more speed, better habitability, and more power. It is also reported that new designs call for an increased number of torpedoes, together with guns and armor protection for surface fighting. There is perhaps a new type of submarine under construction or possibly already afloat, some idea of

which might be had by conceiving a sort of submersible monitor of about 4,000 to 6,000 tons displacement, carrying a turret mounting two six-inch guns so attached to the hull as to present when firing only armor-protected parts above the water. A division of these submersible monitors, accompanied by a few Deutschlands fitted as troop-carrying and supply ships, might set out from a blockaded coast, steam to distant parts, and there seize, fortify, and hold with considerable tenacity an advance base from which to operate against commerce. Such an expedition might do a lot of damage unless met and defeated by the determined measures of an equally enterprising adversary.

The evolution of the submarine appears to be toward the submersible battleship; but the consensus of naval opinion at present seems to be that a super-submersible capable of navigating under the water and also strong enough to fight battleships on the surface involves an almost prohibitive cost, which would be out of proportion to the advantages gained. By increasing the tonnage of the submarine its mechanical difficulties are aggravated. On the other hand, the large tonnage of the surface battleship is like a reserve of wealth, which may be expended in any desirable way; if under-water attack is a serious menace to the battleship some of this tonnage can be drawn upon to supply suitable protection, such as a series of outer and inner bottoms so constructed and subdivided as to make the ship practically nonsinkable; or, if attack from the air is dangerous, reserve tonnage may be drawn upon for aero defense—and so on. In estimating the value of the submarine in wars to come it would appear safe, therefore, to assume that in future struggles for control of the seas the rôle of the submarine will always be secondary to that of surface ships.

Summary of Results

In making a brief survey of the naval activities of the war it is seen that the submarine has been of no great value to the superior navies controlling the seas, but has been practically the only effective

naval weapon of the inferior fleets. When used against the enemy battle squadrons it has influenced strategy and tactics and scored a few minor successes in sinking some of the older men-of-war, but generally speaking has produced no very important results. When used against merchant ships the submarine has been unable to attain effectiveness while complying with the rules and usages of international law, but by resorting to unscrupulous methods it has become a dangerous commerce destroyer; and the suppression of this evil must be one of the tasks of the navies at war with Germany.

The war has shown that the chief tactical value of the submarine is for defense, to hold the enemy at a distance. The fleet submarine has also demonstrated an offensive value which may be useful in attaining a tactical advantage. In addition,

it is not to be denied that the submarine has raised havoc with both neutral and belligerent commerce. But the submarine blockade has not proved effective, and the lawless methods of the U-boat have aroused a worldwide condemnation. The reactive effect of Germany's submarine war on commerce may easily prove so damaging as to more than counter-balance any temporary advantage gained.

It may be inferred, therefore, that the United States needs submarines both to help defend her coasts and to operate as a tactical subdivision of the fleet. A lesson also learned is that, although the submarine is not now, and probably never will be, a dominating factor in naval warfare, it should be squarely faced as a serious menace which to combat successfully under certain circumstances might demand our utmost ingenuity and energy.

Secret U-Boat Orders to German Newspapers

THE following document, which is believed to be authentic, indicates the method used by the German Government to obtain unanimous press support for the present submarine campaign:

General Command, Seventh Army Corps, Dept. 11d, No. 1149.

Münster, February, 1917.

No. 545: NOTICE

TO NEWSPAPER AND EDITORIAL OFFICES, &c.
CONFIDENTIAL. NOT TO BE COPIED.
SECRET.

Newspapers are requested to act on the following advice when discussing unlimited "U" boat war:

1. Opinions regarding the usefulness of the measures and of the time chosen, after the decision has been made, would have the effect of weakness and lack of harmony, would encourage the enemy, and perhaps induce wavering neutrals to come in.

2. For the beginning of the concluding struggle absolute internal unison is essential. The determined approval of the entire people must ring out from the press.

3. It is a question, not of a movement of desperation—all the factors have been carefully weighed after conscientious technical naval preparation—but of the best and only means to a speedy, victorious ending of the war.

4. Toward America it is advisable to use the outward forms of friendliness. Unfriendliness would increase the danger of America coming in—the breaking off of diplomatic relations, even active participation, hangs in the balance. The attitude of the press must not increase this danger.

5. The navy, fully conscious of its power, enters into this new section of the war with firm confidence in the result. It is recommended that the phase be called unlimited, not ruthless, "U" boat war.

6. Material, personnel, and appliances are being increased and approved continually; trained reserves are ready.

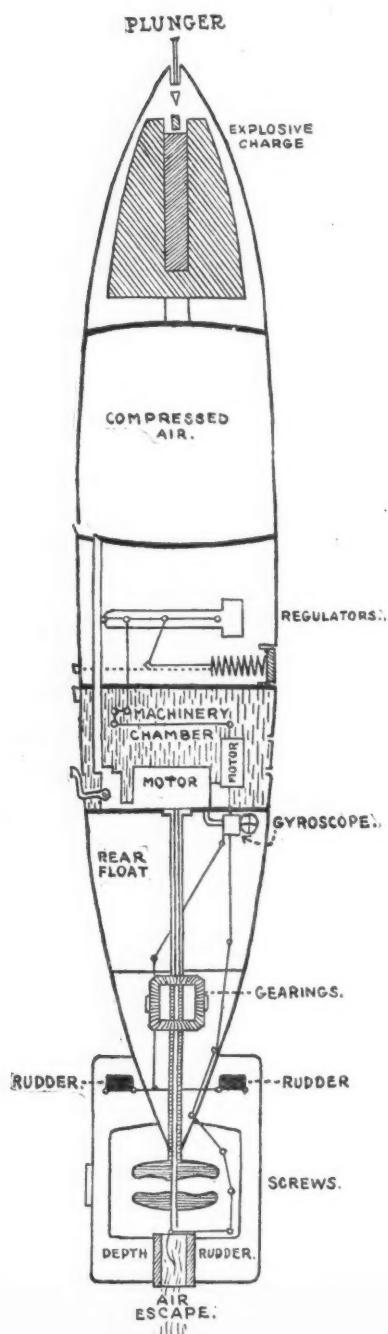
7. England's references to the perfection of her means of defense, which are intended to reassure the English people, are refuted by the good results of the last months.

8. Each result is now much more important, because the enemy's Mercantile Marine is already weakened, the material used up. Much colored personnel.

9. The psychological influence should not be underestimated. Fear amongst the enemy and neutrals leads to difficulties with the crews, and may induce neutrals to keep ships in harbor.

10. "U" boat war is now exclusively a part of the combined method of waging war, therefore a purely military matter.

A Submarine Torpedo: What It Is and How It Works



Nearly all the belligerent powers are now manufacturing their own torpedoes, and the type of all is the same, differing only in details. A glance at the Whitehead torpedo, which is manufactured at Fiume, Austria, and which has long been the only one in use, will give a clear idea of the working of these engines of destruction. After being fired from a tube in the side of a torpedo boat or submarine, the torpedo travels under its own power until this is spent, or until it strikes an object and explodes. The vessel launching it must stop its engines in order to get any accuracy of aim.

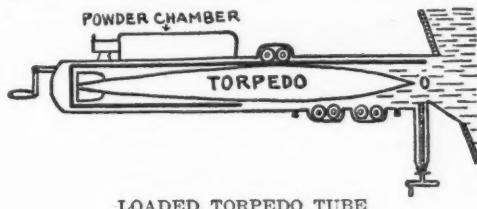
In its external appearance the torpedo is a spindle-shaped tube of sheet steel furnished with a "tail" that gives no clue to the wonderful mechanism inside it. The most powerful type in use measures 21 inches in diameter and about 20 feet long. It weighs 3,000 pounds. The cost of a torpedo is upward of \$1 a pound; even for one of medium size \$2,000 is a moderate price.

The torpedo contains its own motive power, which is compressed air. It is divided into compartments which screw into each other, and which may here be examined in the order in which they are placed.

The "charge cone" at the apex is filled with an explosive—usually moist guncotton—in which is placed a tube of dry guncotton furnished with a fulminating cap preceded by a plunger. When the plunger strikes a solid object it explodes the charge. The earlier model of torpedo contained fifteen or twenty pounds of guncotton, but the largest today contain more than 225 pounds of this or some other powerful explosive.

Behind the charge cone is the compressed-air chamber, with a capacity varying from 12,000 to 20,000 cubic inches and in direct communication with the motor. The air in it is usually compressed to 150 atmospheres. The machine

chamber contains the motor which operates the screws and the auxiliary motor that controls the depth rudder. While the other compartments of the torpedo are water tight, the machine chamber is



LOADED TORPEDO TUBE

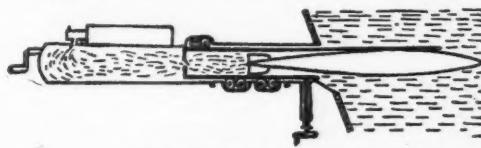
pierced with holes through which it is filled with sea water, thus keeping the motor cool. The rear cone, also called the rear float, contains a considerable quantity of ordinary air. Here is found the gyroscope—whose function is to keep the torpedo going straight in its original direction—with its auxiliary motor, the screw shafts, and a compartment for gearing.

The screws turn in opposite directions, the force being transmitted through two concentric shafts. These shafts are hollow; it is through their tubes that the compressed air escapes on emerging from the motor, producing the bubbles that betray the track of the torpedo on the surface of the water. This track, visible to the naked eye at 800 or 1,000 yards, can scarcely be seen 100 yards away if the sea is rough. The "tail" is formed by a frame, inside of which the screws and rudders move.

As the torpedo propels itself and guides itself by its own power, the firing of it has no other object than to launch it in the water in the right direction. The process differs according as the torpedo is fired from the surface or under water. Both methods are used in torpedo

boats and battleships. To fire the torpedo from the surface a cannon tube is used, charged with one-half to two-thirds of a pound of powder. This tube is usually installed on the deck, mounted on a truck that permits it to be aimed like an ordinary gun.

Firing under water is the only method that can be used by submarines. Every navy maintains secrecy regarding its apparatus for this purpose, but the machinery all belongs to one of two types—(1) a shuttle tube manipulated inside the ship, with the muzzle fitted into the hull; (2) a cradle fixed in the water at the side of the ship and containing the torpedo, which goes forth under the propulsion of its own screw after this has been started from the interior of the vessel. The Armstrong tube, which is



FIRING THE TORPEDO

represented in the accompanying diagrams, belongs to the former class.

The effects of a charge of 200 pounds of guncotton exploding against the side of a vessel are likely to vary according to the point struck, the depth below the surface, and the strength of the hull. The best torpedoes travel to a distance of six miles, with a speed of about twenty-five knots; by limiting the range to two or three miles a speed of thirty-five knots can be obtained, or about twenty yards a second. Within 500 or 1,000 yards there is a chance of hitting the target; at 2,000 yards the chances are meagre, and beyond 3,000 yards the probable lateral deviation is more than 150 meters.



British Foreign Policies and the Present War

By Thomas G. Frothingham

1878

"A free outlet for the undeveloped resources of Russia would have given England the trade of the world. England should have given Constantinople to Russia."

THE above was the comment of the writer's father on the terms of the Congress of Berlin, (1878.)

My father was of an old firm of Mediterranean merchants. This great sea from ancient days has been the pulsating heart of the commerce of the world, and in the seventies its merchants were wise beyond their generation.

These words have proved prophetic—and the results of England's mistake are far-reaching. Her conduct, which led to the Congress of Berlin, made Germany a dominating power in Europe and maintained the Turkish Empire. Both were intended to be buffers against imaginary Russian encroachments—and both are now vindictively fighting against England.

The Past in a New Light

England had emerged from her period of stress through the first half of the eighteenth century with the strongest national life of all the nations. From the adventurers of the Elizabethan times, through the stern assertion of the nation by Cromwell, and from the seafaring colonists of England, there had sprung a national growth unique in history. There were lapses under the indolent Stuarts, but the trend had been toward maritime and colonial supremacy. The last half of the eighteenth century saw England with the dominion of the seas and enlarged colonial possessions.

England strained her resources in the Napoleonic wars, but it is doubtful if her course was altogether wise. She came out of these wars with an apparent increase of prestige and power on the sea. But all her influence had been thrown to

revive the empires of Europe. Of these Prussia, Austria, and Russia were destined to have an evil effect on England's future, Prussia and Austria as enemies and Russia as an imaginary foe, against whom England has wasted her energies for a hundred years.

After the downfall of Napoleon there was for England a long time of great prosperity and increased power. England seemed to have gained all her ends, and, with her established command of the seas and consequent control of commerce, she seemed assured of the commercial supremacy of the world.

Unfounded Suspicion of Russia

But after the war of 1828-29 between Turkey and Russia, which resulted in the independence of Greece, (announced by Turkey in 1830,) there grew up in the British mind a great suspicion of Russia and hostility against Russian occupation of Constantinople. A more false position would have been hard for England to find. As the commercial clearing house of the world and the great common carrier, she would have been assured of Russia's trade, and the development of Russia would have opened great markets for English goods—but all England could see was the bogey of military Russia.

This unreasoning opposition to Russia became a mania with the English, and the resultant harm to England can only be measured by the present war.

It is hard to justify the attitude of the men who controlled the destinies of England. Instead of realizing that the opening of the Dardanelles to Russia meant a flood of wealth to England, Russia was pictured as an avalanche ready to overwhelm British interests in the Near and Far East.

All this was entirely at variance with the characteristics of the Slav. Yet the

"Eastern question" in British eyes became a question of anything to serve as a barrier against Russia. The relations between England and the French Empire became very cordial, and these two powers in the Crimean war (1854) saved the Turkish Empire from the onslaught of Nicholas I. of Russia and maintained Turkish rule over the outlet from the Black Sea.

In view of the lesson that England has received and her recent views, as given out by Balfour, it is really pathetic to realize that England went to war in 1854 to prevent the independence of Serbia, Bosnia, and Bulgaria, the provisional occupation of Constantinople, and a Russian protectorate of the Christians of the Greek Church in the Turkish Empire! Yet such is the fact—and shutting up Russia in the Black Sea was actually regarded as a British triumph! The result of the war was to leave Russia crippled and constricted behind the barriers of the Dardanelles. All her vast commercial possibilities were lost to England. From this time on it was a repetition of the same story. All England's efforts were concentrated on trying to hem in Russia.

British Politics to Blame

No great democratic nation with the vitality of England would have been so blind to its real interests if there had not been some factor that befogged the public mind. This is found in the machinery of English politics. Members of Parliament are not elected for any definite term of office. The only limitation to the life of a Parliament is the seven-year provision of the Septennial act of 1716. Consequently, a Government is not placed in power for any term of office, nor is it dependent on representatives elected at stated times. On the contrary, the Ministry has tenure of office as long as it can command a majority of Parliament. This makes any Government a target for the Opposition, and the result has been a constant effort to raise a "question" on which the Ministry in office might be defeated. This system has led to the manufacture of issues, to the rise and fall of Ministers from artificially pumped up

"questions," and this accounts for the long tenure in office of such "statesmen" as Palmerston, Russell, Disraeli, and Salisbury. Almost all of England's mistakes in the Victorian period are branded with the names of these men—and all were acclaimed as victories at the time.

A constant stream of useless issues attracted the attention of the British public, and kept England from seeing the real stakes in the great game she was playing—her supremacy of the world through control of the sea and unrestricted commerce. If it had not been for the constant bickering over what were then considered the important politics of Parliament, the public mind of England would surely have grasped Great Britain's real interests abroad, of which the most important was freeing commerce for England's profit.

The "Eastern question" became a distorted fetish, to which were sacrificed England's treasures gained through her greatest era. Palmerston, Russell, Disraeli, and Salisbury were the high priests of this cult, and by catchwords and incantations deluded their followers to disaster.

German Growth Stimulated

With Russia shut in as a result of the Crimean war, there followed the most mistaken period of English history. The projects of Louis Napoleon were given full headway—and the aggrandizement of Prussia was unrestrained.

England encouraged Denmark to the breaking point in the Schleswig-Holstein question in 1864—and then left Denmark to lose both provinces, which were acquired by Prussia after the war of 1866.

All this greatly strengthened Prussia. A look at the map will show that these provinces made possible the great double naval base connected by the Kiel Canal, which has proved of such great value to Germany in the present war. Lord John Russell presided over this inexcusable foreign policy,* which made Prussia a

*Black is the ingratitude of mankind! There is no statue of Lord Russell, the great benefactor, the true founder of the German Navy, standing Unter den Linden in Berlin.—Lord Redesdale.

dangerous power in Europe, with a military equipment perfected in the war of 1866. Louis Napoleon dragged unprepared France into fighting this well-armed antagonist—and the victorious war of 1870 created a united Germany.

The impetus of the united strength of Germany evolved from the war of 1870 has never been understood by outside nations. For Germans the war of 1870 has been their text and their inspiration. The next generation of Germans modeled the life of Germany, military, civic, commercial, scientific, and social, on the efficiency of the war of 1870. This is the key to united Germany, and the fact that its States are united should not be any longer doubted.

Nor is it reasonable to think of Germany as merely ruled by a military caste. On the contrary, Germany has made itself a remorseless machine with a full belief in the efficiency of such a system. But the whole mechanism is interlocked with militarism, and if her armies fail to win victory, faith in the structure will disappear. Then there will be a new order in Germany.

With all this great potential national life, Germany emerged from the war of 1870 poor in financial resources. Germany had practically spent in advance the indemnity exacted from France. The French Nation made a wonderful revival from this tax and became prosperous at once, but Germany was hard pressed for funds for her development.

In the meantime Russia had recovered her strength, and the new revolt of the Balkan Slavs (1875-76) had again aroused her to action. The fearful toll of massacre taken by Turkey from Bulgaria caused a great sensation in England, but the Disraeli Government, in power at the time, set against this the "ambitions" of Russia, and England resumed her task as watchdog of the Turkish Empire in Constantinople.

Britain's Greatest Mistake

It is comment enough on the intelligence of British politics at the time to note that the overturn in Parliament, resulting in placing the Disraeli Ministry in power, came from "the question of university education in Ireland." From

this petty issue Disraeli and Salisbury were evolved as England's representatives in the Congress of Berlin, (1878,) the greatest of all England's mistakes in her history.

In the Russo-Turkish war, Russia had broken down the obstinate resistance of the Turks. Her victorious army was advancing on Constantinople, and it was evident at the end of 1877 that the Turks would not be able to save the city. With this victorious advance of the Russians came great alarm in misguided England, and there was a cry to save Constantinople. This was the outbreak of the "jingo" policy. The atrocities in Bulgaria were forgotten, and all who said that Turkey was not England's ward were ignored.

Disraeli fanned these fires to the utmost. Early in 1878 the neutral British Ambassador was recalled from Constantinople and a strong pro-Turk was substituted. The British fleet was ordered to the Dardanelles and a war credit of £6,000,000 was asked of Parliament.

In the meantime Turkey had sued for peace, (Agreement of Adrianople, Jan. 31, 1878,) but England maintained her hostile attitude, and in the Peace of San Stefano (March 3, 1878) Russia did not make the occupation of Constantinople a condition. Serbia, Montenegro, and Rumania were freed from Turkey. Bulgaria remained tributary to the Porte, but received a Christian Prince.

These terms were unsatisfactory to England, and she still threatened war, having made a secret treaty (June 4) to protect Turkey against Russian conquest. For this England was to receive Cyprus, (occupied July 11, 1878.) Germany was secured as a mediator, and the representatives of the powers met at the Congress of Berlin, (June 13-July 13,) under the Presidency of Prince Bismarck—an ominous choice to preside over the settlement of Great Britain's destinies!

Errors of Berlin Congress

By the terms of the treaties drawn up at the Congress of Berlin the Balkan States received less territory than in the Peace of San Stefano. Russia was left still cut off from the Dardanelles. Ger-

LATIN-AMERICAN WAR LEADERS



DR. WENCESLAU BRAZ
President of Brazil



DR. LAURO MULLER
Brazilian Foreign Minister

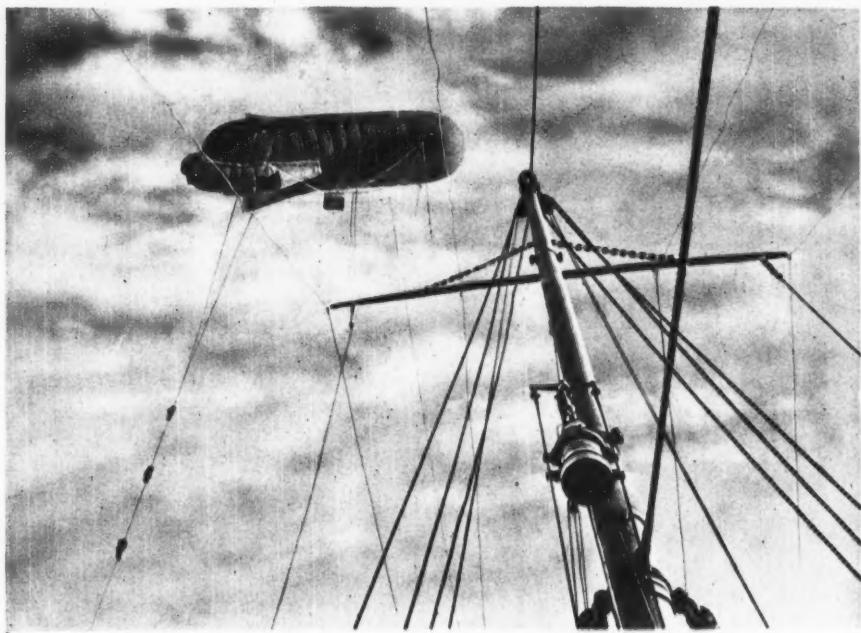


MARIO G. MENOCAL
President of Cuba

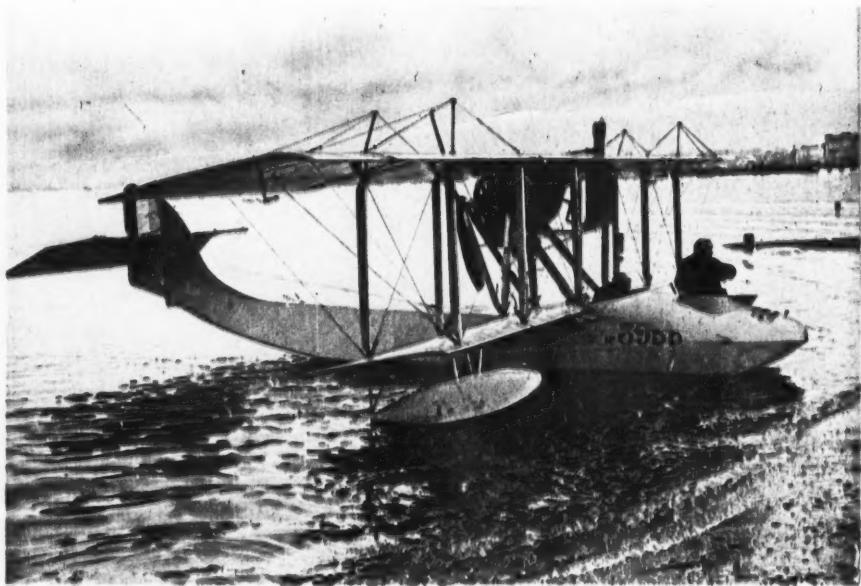


RAMON M. VALDES
President of Panama
(Photo Harris & Ewing)

HUNTING U-BOATS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN



A French Dirigible Watching for Submarines That Are Under Water, and Calling Destroyers by Wireless



A French Naval Seaplane Which Can Rise Into the Air and Destroy Submarines by Means of Special Bombs
(French Official War Record)

many, under the leadership of the great Bismarck, had become a dominant power. England had assumed guardianship of Turkey, and received Cyprus—a mess of pottage for the fairest inheritance in the world!

Yet all this was proclaimed as a British triumph.* Disraeli and Salisbury were pictured as conquerors. The fact that Germany and Austria made their alliance the next year (1879) was not noticed.

From this time on England and Germany drew closer together. English money was loaned to Germany for her pressing financial needs, and while England imagined she was building up a barrier against Russia, Bismarck was using these resources to build up an organized foreign trade. Before England realized her error much of her trade, even in her own colonies, had been taken away by Germany. Even in the late eighties British "statesmen" had not waked to the true situation—and at this time Salisbury ceded Heligoland to Germany!

This last disastrous gift to Germany was a fitting culmination of Salisbury's career. The fortified island and the Bight of Heligoland have given Germany a naval base that has done incalculable harm to England.

Beginning of Antagonism

In the nineties the commercial expansion of Germany, at the expense of England's foreign trade, began to alienate the English from Germany. The British merchants began to realize that English trade was the greatest sufferer from German competition, but this feeling was slow to spread through the nation. The Kaiser's indiscreet letter to Kruger at the time of the Jameson raid in South Africa was the thing that aroused British hostility to Germany. Great Britain at last awoke to the fact that Germany was not a "friendly nation."†

There was an immediate change in feeling toward the United States. The

bitterness over the Venezuela matter disappeared, and Great Britain chose the United States for a friend—a choice she should have made long before.

This change of heart on the part of Britain was strikingly shown in the Spanish-American war at Manila Bay, where the German fleet was threatening our fleet under Admiral Dewey, (1898.) The British Admiral intimated to the German Admiral that, in case of hostilities, the British would take the part of the Americans. From that time Great Britain and Germany drew further apart and open enmity replaced friendship.

Yet even then England did not see the light in regard to Russia. The next phase was the Russian "threat" in the Far East. This was the period that followed "Russia at the Gates of Herat." Again Russia was painted as an avalanche ready to overwhelm the British possessions. Tibet, Afghanistan, and Persia were made so important that all other interests were forgotten, and England was ready to make use of any possible means to do harm to Russia.

The occasion for another British mistake grew out of the Russian lease in Manchuria. Port Arthur was thought a great military base, with a huge Russian army collecting for sinister designs. Consequently England largely financed the Japanese in their war against Russia—with the same obsession of trying to gain another buffer against Russia's imaginary military plans.

Then the curtain was drawn aside and revealed actual conditions—instead of the imaginary ones—and the war showed that Russia's "military preparations" had consisted in having no "great army" in the East, but in building the great open warm-water port of Dalny to let out her trade. This port was destroyed by Japan's victory—to England's immediate loss of trade. England has now realized that, in again cramping Russia, she has created another rival in the East, which has already hurt her trade and influence.

Created the War Situation

So it has continued to the present war. England is now confronted with a situation of her own making. She is clean of

*A volcanic triumph such as has rarely, if ever, been equaled in diplomacy.—Lord Redesdale.

†So called by Salisbury at the time of the cession of Heligoland.

blame in bringing on the war by any wrong acts or by any breach of faith. The events have shown plainly enough that the war is the act of Germany, and that her brutal invasion of France through Belgium had been planned for years in advance. Nothing can remove this stain from Germany, but the unnatural conditions that inexorably brought on the war were made by England.

England has shut in Russia—to England's own great loss. Her policies have made Germany a dominating power, and she has maintained the Turkish Empire. Both Germany and the Turkish Empire are now her deadly foes. She has built up Japan into a military power, and Japan is, at the best for England, only a half-hearted ally and a disturbing influence in Britain's Eastern colonies.

These disastrous results of British policies in the Victorian days of power and opportunity must be faced and no longer ignored. Great Britain is paying a fearful price for the mistakes of the era that should have sealed her dominion, and the nation is now fighting desperately to correct those mistakes.

Our sympathies and our friendship should be with Great Britain in this struggle. There are ties of kinship, and England has lately shown a most friendly feeling toward the United States. We should also remember that England stands for democracy against the autocracy of Germany. On the other hand, the unthinking comment that "England is fighting our war" only blurs the issue and arouses prejudice against Great Britain in many parts of our country. The truth is that England is fighting her own war—not ours. American friendship should be given to England, not demanded as a payment.

There is another very grave aspect of the question. Russia is now one of the Entente Allies, but it is evident that Great Britain, from her conduct toward Russia, has no hold on Russia from any point of view. How can there be any real feeling of friendliness for England in Russia?

France, with the exception of the misguided episode of Louis Napoleon, has

held a different course. France has shown a friendly feeling for Russia, and formed an early alliance with her. Consequently the feeling of Russia for France is a very different thing. France has played a chivalrous part in the great drama, and the strange religious spirit of Russia recognizes this. The only safety for the structure of the Entente Allies is through France. England must do the best she can to remedy her past mistakes, but France is the keystone of the allied arch.

The writer was brought up in a belief in France as the most serious nation on earth, and taught that in any crisis the spirit of France would rise to the occasion. This has proved more than true in the present war. The whole nation gave itself to the task of repelling the invader with a devotion so intense that it was silent. And it is only by degrees that this silent, unselfish strength has been appreciated in America. The wrongs of Belgium won a ready response from our country, but it has taken a longer time to realize the magnificent response of France in her ordeal. There was no propaganda or group of writers to urge the cause of France. Her glory has been told by her deeds, not by her words—and there is no measure to the admiration that Americans should give to France.

America in the War

Since writing the above the United States has been forced into this war by the hostility of Germany. Our position is very different from that of any other nation involved. The conditions that have brought on the war were not in any way made by us. We have not committed any hostile act. We have preserved a strict neutrality—and we have attempted to bring about peace between the warring groups. Our President has stated our aims and objects so plainly that there is no trace of selfishness in our entering the war.

After long patience we have been driven into a declaration of war by repeated hostile acts of Germany. These acts have been not only Germany's brutal defiance of humanity on the seas, but Ger-

many's proved attempts to incite Japan and Mexico to war with us, to disrupt our country and take away its territory. The Zimmermann note would be held a cause of war by any nation on earth. If ever a country was justified in entering a war, the United States is justified and in the right—and we should have faith that this right will prevail.

So clear is this, that it seems it must influence the German Nation. Already it is apparent that the President's wise distinction between the German people and the German autocracy is having an effect on the German public mind. The

sudden promises of future reforms, even by the Kaiser himself, seem to indicate this, and to give grounds for hope that the German people may throw down the evil structure they have built, and that a new Germany may offer peace and good-will to the world.

If this comes, the lesson of the results of artificial conditions in Europe must be remembered—that harsh and oppressive terms are not lasting, and that permanent conditions will never be found with religions ruled by hostile religions, nations dominated by other nations, races ruled by alien races.

Aerial Fighting on the French Front

Lord Northcliffe visited the western front in February and wrote of the splendid achievements of the allied flying corps, which counts many Americans among its membership:

Very rarely do the Germans venture over our lines, and one has to be very far forward nowadays to get a good view of a fight between the Allies and the enemy in the air. I have had that good fortune several times. Air fighting in 1914 bears as much resemblance to air fighting in 1917 as an old steam automobile to a six-cylinder of today. There is a perpetual match in speeding up between the enemy and the Allies. Four or five miles an hour extra pace means everything. It is not the increase of engine power to over 200 horse power that has brought about the change so much as the wonderful progress of the art of flying itself, and it is just here that the Anglo-Saxon and the Frenchman beat the slower-minded German. It is just this reason why the German soldiers' letters are so full of complaint about the overcautious German airman.

When Pégoud invented looping the loop people asked, "Why? What is the use of it?" Pégoud was a very considerable inventor as well as a flier, is the answer. Looping the loop is a useful manoeuvre, and it has been succeeded by that extraordinary development, the nose dive, in which the airman seems to fall like a stone for thousands of feet, till the spectator's hair rises from his head in horror. Suddenly the machine flattens out, scoots away, and you find that it is only a trick after all. I talked with one of our wounded boys—he was just 19—who had fallen 8,000 feet owing to his rudder wire connection being shot through. By a miracle his machine straightened itself out automatically within a hundred yards of the ground, and the boy is alive and will fly again. I asked him his sensations; he is probably the only man in the world alive who has fallen 8,000 feet—more than ten times the height of the Woolworth Building, New York City, 750 feet. He said that for a long time—what seemed like hours—he knew that he was falling, and falling at a tremendous speed, and then he lost consciousness, as in a dream, and found himself being picked out of the wreck of his machine by people who thought that he was dead.

At the beginning of an air fight there is manoeuvring for position and feinting as in boxing. There are, as a rule, two men in each machine—a pilot and an observer—except in the smaller types, in which the wings are clipped down to nothing to get extra speed and climbing power. Knowledge of engine and plane power, quickness of decision, and accuracy of shooting with the Lewis gun are essential to the pilot. His observer is provided with some form of pistol, and often with bombs.

The rival planes, like giant hawks, hover around, above, or below each other, till one more expert or more daring than the other manoeuvres his opponent into a position from which he has either got to fight or flee. The knockout blow is usually a sudden descent on the enemy, accompanied by accurate machine-gun fire. Sometimes it becomes a duel with Browning pistols, in which the men are so close that they can see each other's eyes. The thing is over before you realize it. One machine is off and away, and the other whirls and crashes down, down, down to earth.

Rasputin, Nemesis of the Czar

An Amazing Career Which Bore Directly on the Russian Revolution

THE extraordinary career of the charlatan priest, Rasputin, with his baneful influence at the Court of the Czar, was one of the contributing factors which made the Russian revolution such an instant success. The story of this impostor would be unbelievable if it were not vouched for by trustworthy witnesses. The full record of his criminal career, however, will not be unveiled until the war has ended and the new Government consents that the documents be published.

A trustworthy Russian, whose reliability is vouched for by the conservative London Post, related a brief history of Rasputin's abominable career to the editor, which was printed as follows in March, 1917:

Gregory (Grishka, pronounced Greeshka) Rasputin, aged 44 this year, was a native of Siberia, a common mujik of the village of Pokrovsky, in the district of Tjumen, in the Province of Tobolsk. Like his father, (who is still alive,) he was employed as a fisherman. Uneducated in every sense, he was, in the English sense, illiterate, though before his death he could write a labored and woefully ungrammatical scrawl. His speech to the end remained that of his class. His manners were disgusting even for a mujik; probably he exaggerated his shocking habits in order to emphasize his importance in society. As a young man he was reputed a drunkard, a thief, and a general rascal in his native village; a "shameless one" he was called, even by his fellow-mujiks. Indeed, the local tribunals still hold in solution, so to speak, two criminal charges against him of theft and of perjury, which were stopped by administrative order. For boon companion in his early days he had another drunkard and disorderly person, a small working market gardener, who is now a Bishop of the Pravoslavny Church.

"Rasputin" appears to be really a nickname; the man's real name was Novikh, and "Rasputin" (which may be Englished as "Ne'er-do-weel son") was tacked on to it by his fellow-villagers for good and sufficient reasons. The whole name sounds to Russian ears very much as to English ears would sound "Jacky Ne'erdeweelson Jones," or something else equally common sounding, plus the special nickname so thoroughly earned of "Rasputin." "Grishka" (the contemptuous diminutive of Gregory) is the name for him that has been on every Russian's lips for many years past, and figures in lampoons which were secretly circulated—for "Rasputin" could be neither printed without incurring very heavy penalties nor safely spoken aloud in society without risking some form of reprisals.

Russian "Holy Men"

It must be remembered that Russia, like India, is full of "holy men," and in Russia a proportion of these are arrant rascals, wandering up and down the land, leading a "gospel life" on endless pilgrimages to holy places, collecting money for nonexistent charities; a lazy, sensual life of secret self-indulgence in the most appalling vices, veiled by some striking outward acts of severe asceticism, such as going barefoot or half naked in snow and frost, or carrying massive fetters visibly about their persons.

Grishka, then, went on pilgrimage from holy place to holy place, and collected considerable sums of money for his own use. He built himself a good house in his village, bought a fish pond, and stood drink to his fellow-villagers, and endeavored to ingratiate himself with all men, but very particularly with all women, especially innocent girls who were also young and pretty. He had a wife several years older than himself, and at the time

of his death a boy and two girls, all three grown up, declared themselves from their likeness to him to be obviously his own children. In the big, new eleven-roomed house, built out of fraudulent "collectings" from pious millions on his pilgrimages, Grishka gave his wife three rooms, reserving the others for as many selected young women, his "disciples" and "devotees," or, in plain English, his mistresses. Here were practiced abominations, over which—as not infrequently is the case in Russia—was thrown a pseudo-religious cloak, in accordance with the sect-teaching of such immoral "holy men."

Abnormal Power Over Women

It was in this period of his life that Rasputin discovered his almost miraculous power over women. Doubtless, like the ordinary libertine, he had the gift of knowing instinctively the likely victim. Yet even allowing for this, one can only stand aghast at a power which seemed to have a compelling influence over the whole sex, from Princesses to peasants. Fathers and brothers in his village complained to the authorities about his many seductions of girls, and on many occasions he was severely beaten. He nearly got into serious trouble in the course of his pilgrimages for seducing nuns, and frequently was ignominiously kicked out of monasteries of the better class for his misbehavior. Nevertheless his reputation as a "Saint" was growing, and increased especially after visits to the capital, where he had found powerful protectors.

From this point onward his career, so far as it was associated with this power over women, became almost incredible. It is a fact that ladies bearing ancient historic names, wives and daughters of the great, began to seek Grishka out in his far-away Siberian village. He removed his court to Tjumen, some sixty miles away, and practiced his religious exercises, and taught that there was in him a portion of the Divine, with whom all that would be saved must be one in the flesh and in the spirit. Such methods of corruption are common enough in Russia; it was not in kind but in degree that Rasputin's practice of them was so astonishing. The creature was invited to dine

with the great—possessors of historic titles and high places in the world—who watched him eat with the fingers of both hands, like a primeval beast. Those fingers were often licked clean by hysterical devotees sitting beside him, guests of great historic houses and themselves of high rank or title, to whom the animal would hold out his hands with a curt command like that of an ancient Roman to his lowest slaves.

This part of the man's story sounds incredible, but it is true. There were even genuinely honest women who feared the creature, and in that fear suppressed a natural curiosity. They resolutely avoided all chances of meeting the man, who was making and unmaking Ministers of State and high dignitaries of the Pravoslavny Church; making and marring the fortunes of hundreds directly and of millions indirectly. As for men, his followers were of two classes. They were either those who gladly mortified the flesh in his "religious" exercises, or they belonged to the large class of place hunters and favor seekers.

The fascination of the man lay altogether in his eyes. Otherwise he looked simply a common mujik, with no beauty to distinguish him; a sturdy rogue, overgrown with a forest of dirty, unkempt hair, dirty in person (dirt is holiness in some countries) and disgusting in habits. His language oscillated between the stock-in-trade odds and ends of Scripture and mystic writ and the foulest vocabulary of Russian, which of all white men's tongues is the most powerful in the expression of love and affection and of abominable abuse. But the eyes of this satyr were remarkable—cold, steely gray, with that very rare power of expanding and contracting the pupils at will, regardless of the amount of light present. He possessed without doubt the very strong, natural hypnotic powers which seem always to go with that peculiarity. It was this that in the first place differentiated Grishka Rasputin from the hundreds of other "holy" rascals of erotic type known to history and in daily life in that unfathomable land of Russia.

In the rest of his wonderful career Rasputin was indebted to several aiding

circumstances, among them, as is now universally believed, the guiding hand of Germany. Grishka was the "obscure influence hostile to Russia" referred to in identical language by the United Nobility of Russia, the State Council, the State Duma, the United Zemstvos' organization; language, in fact, composing the single cry of the whole nation, which, save for three brief days soon after his death, dared not mention the dread name aloud. The high authorities sternly forbade, and the nation obeyed.

Into this story of the public status of Rasputin, as distinct from his personal character, there would enter, were it fully displayed, the question of his support by the Pravoslavny Church in Russia, the most powerful instrument of State governance. And with that would also have to be related the incidents leading up to the authority which Rasputin came to acquire with the Empress, through his pretensions—possibly backed by his hypnotic powers—to wield a miraculous influence over the life and well-being of the Grand Duke Alexis, the heir to the Russian throne. It will be enough to say that—however it came about—on several occasions when Rasputin was sent away or absented himself in ostentatious pique at some disfavor some ill did occur to the boy. And thus it was that Rasputin was given rooms at the palace at Tsarskoe Selo in the apartments occupied by Mme. Virubova, favorite Lady in Waiting to the Empress, and his personal safety was in charge of the special corps known as the "Palace Police," who are responsible for the safety of the sovereign.

Protected at Tsarskoe Selo

To the Empress, Rasputin was a saint, a divine agent, a miraculous guide. No stories about him were ever listened to; they were slanders due to jealousy of his exalted position, inventions of enemies, not of the saint himself but of the dynasty, and the like. Hence that influence which made and unmade Ministers of State and Bishops of the Pravoslavny Church, and dispensed patronage to thousands from highest to quite little people. A lady of birth is credited with having

been the mainspring of this venal conspiracy; but Rasputin himself, with all the shrewdness of the mujik, was unsparing of his enemies. Kokovtsov, Premier Minister of Russia, once succeeded in getting him banished from the Court; he returned, and Kokovtsov was dismissed with remarkable suddenness. The Adjunct Minister of the Interior, who controls the police of the empire, Dzhunkovsky, incurred his enmity, (knocked him down, it is said, for unparalleled impudence by word and gesture,) and Dzhunkovsky had to go. Samarin, barely appointed Procurator of the Holy Synod, showed plain intentions of cleansing the Pravoslavny Church from these malign influences and filthy practices, but was dismissed before he had time to act. Stürmer's was perhaps the worst of Rasputin's appointments, and it immediately led to rebellion throughout Turkestan.

The Murder on the Moyka

From this appointment of Stürmer dates the belief that Rasputin was manipulated from and in the interest of Berlin. But, like other "holy" rascals in Russia, he took from all and sundry and for every kind of service. Getting military appointments and exemptions from war service was a fruitful source of income to Rasputin. Frequently he would play the kindly benefactor, doing deeds of charity by assisting poor supplicants, and dipping heavily only into the pockets of the rich. In fact, there was neither limit nor bottom to the wickedness which he contrived to execute in every walk of life. Every man in Russia would gladly have seen Rasputin butchered any time these five years past, and many would have done the deed with their own hands if they could have come at him through the protective cordon (the same as for the sovereign) of the "Palace Police." In the end he was assassinated with their own hands by men of such rank as has not for over a hundred years in Russia taken an active part in like bloody deeds. Not since the murder of the Emperor Paul have persons of their rank who assassinated Rasputin thus imbrued their hands in blood.

Color was given to the story of Ras-

putin's assassination being a political murder by the presence at it of a member of the Right Party in the Duma, who took a leading part in the disposal of the corpse. He has been credited with engineering the affair, and in consequence has won an unprecedented popularity throughout Russia. Rasputin was invited on the night of Dec. 17 (30) by a gentleman in an automobile—a private car—who brought a note, said to be in the hand of a lady devotee of Grishka, and took him to the house on the Moyka of the young Prince Y., Count S. E. There a distinguished party was assembled. Y., it ought to be remarked, is heir to the richest patrimony in Russia. It is said that he can ride behind horses from end to end of European Russia and sleep on his own land every night. There were present, among others, the Grand Duke D. P. and two sons of the Grand Duke, who married the Emperor's sister. In the company, as has been said, was the Duma member whose activity at the front with his feeding points and other organizations has made his name a household word throughout the empire.

About 6 in the morning, when most of the party had dispersed and Rasputin was almost certainly beastly drunk, according to his later habit, a number of shots were fired in the house, and Rasputin was brought out bleeding, in volumes indicative of his alcoholized state, and put into a motor. Whether or not he was then dead seems uncertain; he certainly had mortal wounds in the side of his head and trunk. He was driven off some way and flung over a bridge. The Grand Dukes appear to have gone home, and Prince Y., having reported the whole affair to the Minister of Justice, attempted later to leave by train for the Caucasus or some other of his estates, but was stopped at the station. An abandoned motor soaking in blood was found miles out of town; it belonged to a Grand Duke.

Rasputin's Body Discovered

The entire police and detective force of the capital was afoot and raked through all the houses of ill-fame, gypsy singers' haunts, and, in fact, every con-

ceivable place else, until the finding of a bloodstained golosh brought them to a deserted part of one of Petrograd's smaller rivers. The ice, of course, was several feet thick, but it is the custom in Russia to cut openings where water is obtained and linen is rinsed by laundresses. Divers went down and found nothing; eventually the body was picked out near the bank. Orders had been given to break up the ice if necessary all the way to Kronstadt, but the body must be found. When it was discovered it was secretly interred at Tsarskoe Selo.

The Emperor meanwhile had arrived in haste from the front. For three days extremely guarded references to an "interesting murder" appeared in the press: alongside were printed seemingly inconsequent biographical notes about the chief actors in the tragedy. Officially, however, nothing whatever was allowed to appear beyond the statement of death ("ended his life," not said how!) and the fact that the body had been found. After these three days not even the most distant references were any longer possible. The Grand Duke D. P. took upon himself the whole responsibility, and Grand Dukes are above the law. Under these circumstances the officials found that murder was committed, but that "the evidence was insufficient," and so on.

The Grave of Rasputin

A correspondent of The Associated Press visited Tsarskoe Selo on March 27 and had an opportunity to see Rasputin's grave, from which the body had been removed and burned by the revolutionists. He found the spot on the edge of a ravine beyond a desolate and roadless plain covered with deep snow. His narrative continues:

"The grave is surrounded by an unfinished log chapel, which adherents of the monk, with the monetary assistance of the former Empress, planned to raise over Rasputin's remains. Beside the chapel nave are half a dozen tiny cells for pilgrims, and near the end is the ten-foot hole from which the revolutionaries disinterred the body.

"The chapel was filled with soldiers,

some of whom were inscribing ribald remarks on the log walls. One of the inscriptions reads: 'Here lay Rasputin; foulest of men, the shame of the Romanoff dynasty, the shame of the Russian Church.'

"As the correspondent was reading the inscriptions he heard loud shouts. Looking down into the grave, he saw a little brown Siberian soldier on his haunches, doing the Russian squat dance. The soldiers told the correspondent that Countess Hendrikoff, at the request of the former Empress, had offered a large sum to the guards if they would have the grave covered so as to prevent its further desecration.

"The superstitious belief that the health, and even the life, of Grand Duke Alexis, the young heir apparent, depended on the presence of Rasputin is explained in the following extraordinary manner by the Russky Slovo:

"Rasputin, according to the newspaper, stated in confidences to friends at convivial moments that he was able to fortify this superstition with the help of Mme. Virubova, lady in waiting to the Empress, and M. Badmaef, Court physi-

cian, until the Empress was absolutely convinced that the life of her son depended on the monk. Whenever Rasputin was absent for any length of time from the Court Mme. Virubova, according to the monk's story as given by the newspaper, obtained poisonous powders from the physician and contrived to place them in food brought to Alexis. The result was that during Rasputin's absences the delicate health of the young heir apparent grew steadily worse, until Rasputin was summoned back to the Court, when the powders were stopped and Alexis became immediately better.

"Rasputin always announced that forty days after his death Alexis would fall ill. This prophecy came true with startling accuracy, being caused, the newspaper declares, by Mme. Virubova administering another powder to the little Grand Duke in the hope of continuing the tradition of Rasputin's influence over the imperial family and preparing the way for a successor to him."

Mme. Virubova was placed under arrest by the Revolutionary Government early in April and confined at the Fortress of St. Peter and St. Paul.

Russia's First Month of Freedom

THE record of the Russian Provisional Government in the first month showed steady and consistent progress along the path it had struck out on its sudden accession to power after the overthrow of the old régime. On the one hand, it went ahead rapidly with the work of introducing internal reforms and cleaning out the abuses of the old system; on the other, it set itself sternly to the task of bringing the organization of its military strength to the highest possible point of efficiency for the vigorous prosecution of the war against the Central Powers.

The ability of the men in control of the Government was partly explained in a statement made by the Minister of Justice, Kerensky, to an American correspondent. "Our aim is," he said, "to use talent wherever we can find it." The

Russians themselves never doubted their capacity for self-government once they were given the chance. "We knew what we could do," Premier Lvoff declared on March 21. "We have gone ahead and done it, and now, a week after the revolution began, the whole country is in smooth running order. The bureaucratic obstacle is gone, the new Russia is before us. The future is so brilliant I hardly dare to look into it."

As the days succeeded it became more and more apparent that public opinion in Russia was overwhelmingly in favor of a republican form of government similar to that of the United States, with perhaps a greater measure of local autonomy. The sentiment in the large cities was republican from the very start. Not only were the extreme radicals in favor of a republic, but even the Constitutional

Democratic Party, of which Milukoff is the leader. The Central Committee and the Parliamentary representatives of this party, at Petrograd, voted in favor of a republican form of government; and meetings of peasant communities also declared themselves unanimously for a republic.

On March 21 the Government ordered that the ex-Czar and Czarina be imprisoned in Tsarskoe Selo. The same day Dr. Milukoff, the Foreign Minister, stated that nothing stood in the way of a new commercial treaty between Russia and the United States, now that Russia was on the point of granting full and equal rights to the Jews.

Recognized by the United States

The next day, the American Ambassador, David R. Francis, accompanied by his entire staff, went to the Marinsky Palace to convey the formal recognition by the United States of the new Russian Government. America was thus the first country to welcome Russia into the family of free nations. Addressing the Council of Ministers, Ambassador Francis said:

I have the honor, as the Ambassador and representative of the Government of the United States accredited to Russia, to state, in accordance with instructions, that the Government of the United States has recognized the new Government of Russia, and I, as Ambassador of the United States, will be pleased to continue intercourse with Russia through the medium of the new Government.

May the cordial relations existing between the two countries continue to obtain. May they prove mutually satisfactory and beneficial.

Professor Milukoff, Foreign Minister, replied for the Council of Ministers, saying:

Permit me, in the name of the Provisional Government, to answer the act of recognition by the United States. You have been able to follow for yourself the events which have established the new order of affairs for free Russia. I have been more than once in your country and may bear witness that the ideals which are represented by the Provisional Government are the same as underlie the existence of your own country. I hope that this great change which has come to Russia will do much to bring us closer together than we have ever been before.

I must tell your Excellency that during the last few days I have received many congratulations from prominent men in your country,

assuring me that the public opinion of the United States is in sympathy with us. Permit me to thank you. We are proud to be recognized first by a country whose ideals we cherish.

On March 23 Great Britain, France, and Italy also extended formal recognition of the Russian Provisional Government through their Ambassadors at Petrograd.

Former Czar a Prisoner

The former Czar Nicholas's arrival at Tsarskoe Selo the day after his arrest, in the custody of four members of the Duma, caused no stir. The crowd that had gathered at the station looked on silently, and even the residents of the Court village, whose livelihood depended upon the imperial patronage, remained cold and unmoved. Nicholas was turned over to the Tsarskoe Selo commander and taken to the Alexandrovsky Palace, where a strict guard was established. He and his wife are being kept under close surveillance. He is allowed to walk in the garden only twice daily and only in the presence of the palace commander, Kotzebue. For many days he was in close attendance on his son, who was very ill with measles. He took some recreation by shoveling snow. He wept occasionally, but was quite submissive. At church he was the first to kneel when a prayer was offered up for the new Government.

Along with Nicholas and Alexandra there were 200 other inmates, courtiers, and adherents of the old régime, who were held prisoner in the palace. These were subsequently transferred to the Fortress of St. Peter and St. Paul in consequence of alleged plotting against the new Government, and the former Czar and Czarina were thus isolated.

Meanwhile the cleansing process was prosecuted with energy. Every day members of the Secret Police, the Black Hundreds, and spies were put out of harm's way. Up to March 25, 4,000 had been arrested and imprisoned in Petrograd alone. It was these elements that had created the counter-revolution in 1905, and their elimination freed the Government from a source of danger to the

stability of the new-won liberty and the effective prosecution of the war.

Reform Measures

Simultaneously with the internal reforms the War Office began vigorously pushing the work of military reorganization under the leadership of War Minister Gutzkov, and introduced measures of radical reform. Among those contemplated was the concentration of the supreme direction of the army in a war council consisting of the Ministers of War, Marine, and Foreign Affairs, who would be in constant touch with the Ministers of Railways and Agriculture, the last to give special advice and information in the matter of food supplies.

The Russian War Office renewed its youth. Under the old régime new ideas, dictated by the obvious necessities of the war and the bitter experience of all the Allies, had fallen for the most part on stony soil. Intrigue, inertia, and a score of other deadening influences presented insuperable barriers to effective reform. Now all the reserves of youth and intelligence have been enlisted, and reforms long overdue have been put into effect.

The removal of Grand Duke Nicholas from the post of Commander in Chief of the Russian armies was officially confirmed on March 28, and General M. V. Alexieff, Chief of the General Staff, was appointed his successor. All members of the imperial family and all officers friendly to the autocracy were likewise removed from army posts, and all the Grand Dukes were forbidden to leave the military district of Petrograd.

New Oath of Office

On March 28 all the Ministers of the Provisional Government took the following oath of office in the Senate:

In the capacity of a member of the Provisional Government created by the will of the people and at the instance of the Duma, I promise and swear before Almighty God and my conscience to serve faithfully and justly the people of the Russian State, sacredly guarding its liberty, rights, honor, and dignity, inviolably observing in all my acts and orders civil liberty and civic equality, and in all measures intrusted to me, suppressing any attempts, direct or indirect, toward the restoration of the old régime.

I swear to apply all my intelligence and

strength completely to fulfill all the obligations assumed by the Provisional Government before the eyes of the people. I swear to take all measures for the convocation of the Constituent Assembly in the shortest possible time on the basis of universal, direct, equal, and secret suffrage, to transfer to the hands of the Assembly all the authority provisionally exercised by me in conjunction with other members of the Government, and to bow before the people's will as expressed by that Assembly concerning the form of government and the fundamental laws of the Russian State.

May God help me in the fulfillment of this oath.

One of the most-hated features of the old bureaucratic Government was its system of raising revenue. The burden fell most heavily upon the peasants, who were taxed to the starvation point. As the Russian population is largely agricultural, the prosperity of the country depended chiefly upon the welfare of the peasants. Consequently, their oppression greatly retarded Russia's normal development. The new Government began to grapple with this problem at once.

Important Financial Program

Tereshchenko, the Minister of Finance, outlined his financial program on March 29 as follows:

The country is full of capital, which has grown out of the increased industrial activity since the beginning of the war, and my plan is to institute immediately a new system of taxes based on war profits. Since 1915 all industrial enterprises of the country have shown most remarkable increases in earnings and have issued millions of new shares. It is only proper that the Government should have a more adequate share in these profits.

In the past, revenues have been obtained only in a casual manner by the Ministry of Finance, and, although they far exceeded the financial loss to the Government occasioned by the suspension of the liquor traffic, they have not been properly or thoroughly applied to the resources of the country, which ought to contribute largely to the expenses of carrying on the war.

This new revenue will enable the country to meet at least the accumulating interest on outstanding loans. Russia will have to depend, of course, upon foreign loans, and, judging by the sympathy and support with which the new Government has been greeted by its allies and in the United States, there should be no difficulty in arranging a basis for a continuance of financial assistance abroad.

A not inconsiderable item of expense was saved by the elimination of the

"pocket money," so to speak, that the imperial family formerly drew from the State revenues. This amounted to no less than \$20,000,000 annually. On March 30 the Provisional Government, in compliance with a demand made by the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies, through the Socialist Cabinet member, Chkheidze, confiscated all the imperial lands and monasteries, which yield an annual revenue of 25,000,000 rubles. Three days before the Grand Dukes and Royal Princes had, of their own accord, given up their crown lands and other official property to the Government.

Despite the war, the economic organization of the country proceeded apace. The growth of the trade-union movement took on tremendous proportions. An eight-hour day was introduced in Petrograd, and a central board of arbitration appointed to settle trade disputes. The eight-hour day was also introduced in other cities and throughout the country. The fever of organization spread even to the peasants. They formed a council of peasants' Deputies modeled after the Council of Workmen and Soldiers.

Not to Claim Constantinople

That free Russia has no desire to annex Constantinople was the inference drawn from a statement made by the very influential Minister of Justice, Kerensky, that the Dardanelles should be "internationalized." This view was further strengthened in the declaration of Premier Lvoff on April 10:

"The new Government considers it its duty to make known to the world that the object of free Russia is not to dominate other nations and forcibly take away their territory. The object of independent Russia is a permanent peace and the rights of all nations to determine their own destiny."

On April 7 Kerensky declared that if the German people would follow the example of Russia and overthrow their monarch, "we offer the possibility of preliminary negotiations." He added, however: "We are not going to assist in making a separate peace." Kerensky's statement was in accord with an appeal adopted on March 28, at a meeting of

workmen's and soldiers' Deputies, addressed to the laborers of all countries, but mentioning especially the Central Powers, "to throw off the yoke of autocratic rule as the Russian people have overthrown the imperial autocrat and refuse to serve longer as an instrument in the hands of Kings, capitalists, and bankers."

A party of Russian radicals who arrived at Stockholm from Switzerland on April 13 were said to be planning a peace congress in Stockholm, and to have won the support of German radicals and some French Socialists. Lenin, a prominent Russian Socialist, who had lived in Switzerland, was their leader. The fact that their mission was synchronous with the German Socialist majority leader Scheidemann's alleged departure for Stockholm to meet envoys of the Russian Government, and that the Russian radicals were permitted to pass through Germany from Switzerland, was taken to mean that the plan had the backing of the German Government.

Poland and Finland Free

In its policy toward dependent nationalities the new Government announced that Poland was to receive complete independence with the right to determine its own form of government and its relation, if any, to Russia. The Polish Deputies thereupon surrendered their seats in the Duma. On March 29 the Provisional Government appointed a committee with Alexander Lednitsky, a Pole, as Chairman, to make the necessary arrangements for the separation of Poland from Russia and to determine the relation of the State to the Roman Catholic Church.

In Finland the Governor, Sein, was removed. On March 21 a manifesto was issued by the new Government completely restoring the Finnish Constitution and annulling all edicts and administrative rules and regulations. A liberal was appointed Governor, and the Finnish Diet was convened. On April 13 M. Kerensky, the Russian Minister of Justice, was present at the meeting of the Diet, and in a speech greeting the "free Finnish people" in the name of the Provisional Russian Government declared that Russia

would do everything in its power to make it certain that Finland should remain free forever.

The Speaker of the Diet, M. Talman, requested M. Kerensky to inform the Russian people of the Diet's gratitude for the fraternal greeting. He said that henceforth a complete agreement, on the basis of reciprocal confidence, would prevail between the two peoples.

To the Armenians, Kerensky expressed himself in favor of an autonomous Government for them under Russia's protection. The promised emancipation of the Jews became an accomplished fact on March 25, when, according to advices received at the Russian Embassy at Washington, absolute equality of the Jews was proclaimed by the new Government. Jews are permitted to reside wherever they please, they have access to all posts in the navy and army, and are unrestricted as to educational advantages and the owning of property. A number of Jews were made officers in the army, says a cable dispatch of April 12, the first city claiming that distinction being Odessa, and 250 Jewish students entered the military officers' school. On March 27 it was announced, according to telegrams to Russian correspondents at Copenhagen, that the Jewish advocates, Grusenberg and Winawer, were appointed members of the Russian Senate and of the Supreme Court. They were the first Jews who ever obtained a seat in a Russian tribunal.

On April 4 full religious liberty was proclaimed and all laws discriminating against any creed or religion repealed. Premier Lvoff promised a delegation of women on April 4 that women would be given the right to vote.

Return of Siberian Exiles

One of the most dramatic and picturesque events of the revolution was the return of the political exiles and prisoners from Siberia. A full hundred thousand of them were released, and their progress from the prisons, mines, and convict settlements across Siberia to Russia was one grand triumphal march. Everywhere they were met by wildly cheering crowds, feted by reception committees, and called

upon to deliver speeches. So great was their haste to leave that many of them did not even wait to change their prison garb or have their chains struck off.

The most celebrated of the ex-exiles were two women, Catharine Breshkovskaya and Marie Spiridonova. Catharine Breshkovskaya is known as the grandmother of the revolution. She has grown old in Siberian prisons and exile. Forty-four years of her life were spent there. Escaping once, she braved the Russian authorities again, and, though by that time an old woman, she fought dauntlessly side by side with the younger generation in the new movement that led to the unsuccessful uprising in 1905. Again she was thrust into exile. When she reached Petrograd from Siberia the 1st of April, she was met at the railroad depot by a military band and representatives of the Government and carried through the streets. A similar reception was given her in Moscow on April 5. Here the soldiers and the reception committee carried her out into the street on their shoulders.

Equally popular was Marie Spiridonova, who, though still young, suffered a martyrdom perhaps even greater than Breshkovskaya's. She was tortured with a refinement of cruelty that is unprintable. One of the lesser harms done her was the disfiguring of her face for life. The two bureaucratic agents who inflicted the torture were later assassinated by revolutionists.

Signs of Unrest

The Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates, after a prolonged session at Petrograd, adopted a resolution on April 16 affirming the necessity of its continuing to exercise influence and control over the Russian Provisional Government, and appealing to the whole democracy of Russia to rally around the council as the only organization capable of counteracting any reactionary move.

The resolution at the same time appealed to democracy to support the Provisional Government so long as it continued to develop the conquests of the revolution and abstained from any aspirations for territorial expansion.

On the same day a dispatch from Tash-

kent, Asiatic Russia, announced that General Alexei Kuropatkin, Governor General of Turkestan, his assistant, General Yerofeiff, and General Sivers, Chief of Staff, had been arrested by the Council of Soldiers' Delegates. General Buroff, commanding the First Siberian Brigade, and General Tsuomilien, commanding the local brigade, also were placed under arrest and confined to a guardroom. The officers are charged with distributing arms to Russians in various districts for defense against natives in the event of an attack. This action was held to be of a provocative character. The Cossack guards of General Kuropatkin appeared at the meeting of the Soldiers' Delegates and announced that they would not defend him.

General Kuropatkin was in chief command of the Russian forces in Manchuria in the Russo-Japanese war and was for a while Commander in Chief of the Russian northern armies in the present war.

The news from Petrograd up to April 20, at which date this record closes, indicated a gradual subsidence of unrest and a tendency among the workingmen to recognize the authority of the Provisional Government. Industries which had been closed since the outbreak were being reopened, the soldiers were becoming more amenable to discipline, and there were indications that the moderates would be able to keep the radical revolutionists in check; but the feeling of general unrest had by no means yet disappeared.

Warning of Russia's Revolution

Paul Milukoff's Address

THE following document, read in the Duma by Professor Milukoff on Feb. 28, a week before the outbreak of the revolution, contained a warning that has become historic in the light of what followed:

We are nearing a point in our conduct of the war when the supreme effort of the nation will be required in order to secure victory. We are at a moment of crisis in the great war. The military resources of the enemy are nearing exhaustion; his morale is getting lower; and just at the moment when we ought to develop the highest power of resistance and endurance, we are beginning to see the consequences of the inactivity of our Government in organizing the nation for the supreme effort.

We might be told that the Government alone is not responsible for the faults of our machinery of war; that our past, our whole history, are the causes of our backwardness. To this I say most emphatically, No. The Government and the Government alone is responsible for it. The Government concentrated all its efforts on the internal war. At a moment when the whole nation is straining to get ahead and demands of the Government a clear road to victory, the Government is drawing it back. The nation is united in its supreme effort against the external foe; but the Government returns to the old internal war in order to insure its own safety.

Every day voices from all parts of the country are reaching us, addressed to the Duma. The people in the provinces tell us: "Act boldly and act instantly; the country is with you." These voices enable me, even in the present dark state of affairs, to retain my hope, to refrain from any pessimism, and I warn you not to be led into pessimism. In England and France the people have found themselves; the same may already be said about Russia.

When the nation finds that, in spite of all its sacrifices, its destinies are being endangered by a clique of incompetent and corrupt rulers, then the people become a nation of citizens; they become determined to take their case into their own hands. Gentlemen, we are approaching that point. In everything we see around us, we hear the echo of the patriotic anxiety which fills our own hearts. It is in this alarm and not in silence and reconciliation that I see a promise of salvation for the country. You know well that I can say no more from this tribune. You know that this alarm is well-founded, and you know that the Duma alone is not in a position to remove the causes of this alarm; but I firmly believe in the active patriotism of the nation.

I believe that the people will not allow its forces to be flouted in the present critical struggle, and I believe that when once the popular idea that Russia cannot conquer with the present Government ripens in the mind of the nation, the nation will triumph in spite of the Government.

German Raiders in the Atlantic

Twenty-six Merchant Ships Captured by the Möwe in a Second Expedition

THE German auxiliary cruiser Möwe, (Seagull,) commanded by Count zu Dohna-Schlodien — the same sea raider that had captured the Appam and fourteen other merchant ships a year before—stole out through the Kiel Canal and the North Sea late in November, 1916, and added a still more destructive chapter to its record. The British Admiralty got the first inkling of the predator on Dec. 2 and sent out a general warning on Dec. 8, but, though several vessels were known to be missing, the operations of the raider continued to be shrouded in mystery.

The true state of affairs came to the public on Jan. 16, 1917, when the captured Japanese steamer Hudson Maru landed at Pernambuco, Brazil, with 287 men taken from six ships that had been sunk at various points between the Azores and the Brazilian coast. On Dec. 31 the captured British steamer Yarrowdale had arrived at Swinemünde, Germany, with 469 prisoners taken from one Norwegian and seven British ships in the South Atlantic, but the German Government did not announce the fact until Jan. 19. Even then the name of the sea raider remained in doubt. Finally, on March 22 a Berlin dispatch announced the recent return of the Möwe from a second successful raid among enemy shipping. The Möwe herself had brought in 593 prisoners, including fifty-seven Americans from the crew of the British horse transport Esmeraldas.

The total number of ships sunk or taken as prizes by the Möwe on this raid was at least twenty-six, aggregating 125,000 tonnage, and carrying to the bottom many millions of dollars' worth of foodstuffs, munitions, and general cargo. The property loss was estimated at between \$15,000,000 and \$20,000,000. The total number of prisoners landed by the Möwe and the two prize ships not sunk was 1,389. A few lives were reported

lost. Fifty-nine of the men on the Yarrowdale were American sailors, some of whom had been employed on armed British merchantmen. These the German Government was inclined to hold as war prisoners, on the ground that all armed ships are warships; but this threatened cause of international controversy disappeared when the Americans were released on March 9 and returned by way of Switzerland. They filed charges to the effect that they had been roughly treated and half starved in Germany.

List of the Victims

The vessels reported captured by the Möwe were the following:

Voltaire, British steamer, with crew of 93 men, sunk on Nov. 21.

Pallbjörb, Norwegian steamer, bound from America to France with a cargo of food.

Mount Temple, British steamer with 7.5-centimeter gun, 9,792 tons gross, with provisions, parcels, and horses.

Duchess of Cornwall, British sailing ship of 152 tons, with fish.

King George, British steamer of 3,852 tons gross, with explosives, provisions, and parcels.

Cambrian Range, British steamer of 4,200 tons gross, with wheat and parcels.

Georgic, British steamer with 12-centimeter gun, 10,000 tons gross, with wheat, meat, and horses.

Yarrowdale, British steamer of 4,600 tons gross, with ammunition, provisions, and war materials.

St. Theodore, British steamer of 5,000 tons gross, with coal.

Dramatist, British steamer of 5,400 tons gross, with ammunition and fruit.

Nantes, French sailing ship of 2,600 tons gross, with saltpepper.

Ansières, French sailing ship of 3,100 tons gross, with wheat.

Hudson Maru, Japanese steamer of 3,800 tons gross, with parcels.

Radnorshire, British steamer, with 12-centimeter gun, 4,300 tons gross, with coffee and cocoa.

Minieh, British steamer of 3,800 tons gross, (listed at 2,890 tons gross,) with coal.

Netherby Hall, British steamer of 4,400 tons gross, with rice and parcels.

Jean, Canadian sailing ship of 2,115 tons gross, with sugar.

Staut, Norwegian sailing ship of 1,200 tons gross, with whale oil.

Brecknockshire, British steamer, with 12-centimeter gun, of 8,400 tons gross, with coal.

French Prince, British steamer of 4,800 tons gross, with coal.

Katherine, British steamer of 2,900 tons gross, with wheat.

Rhodanthe, British steamer of 3,000 tons gross, in ballast.

Esmeraldas, British steamer of 4,680 tons gross, in ballast.

Otaki, British steamer of 7,400 tons gross, (listed at 9,575 tons gross,) with 12-centimeter guns, in ballast.

Demetertown, British steamer with 7.5-centimeter guns, 6,048 tons gross, with food.

Governor, British steamer, with 12-centimeter guns, of 5,500 tons gross, in ballast.

"The Möwe is a finely masked cruiser of 12,000 tons," said one of the released neutral sailors. "It is impossible to discover anything unusual about her before the rail drops down and the guns are uncovered. The Möwe is also carrying sails, which prevent any view of the deck. The cruiser is quite new and armed with four big guns and two smaller ones. She has four torpedo tubes."

German Official Statement

The following official statement was issued at Berlin under date of Jan. 19, 1917:

The English steamer Yarrowdale, of 4,600 tons, was brought into harbor on Dec. 31 as a prize by a prize crew of sixteen men. She had aboard 469 prisoners, namely, the crews of one Norwegian and seven English ships which were captured by one of our auxiliary cruisers in the Atlantic Ocean.

The cargoes of the captured vessels consisted principally of war material for our enemies from America and foodstuffs, including 6,000 tons of wheat, 2,000 tons of flour, and 1,900 horses. The Yarrowdale had on board 117 motor lorries, one motor car, 6,300 cases of rifle cartridges, 30,000 rolls of barbed wire, and 3,300 tons of steel bars, besides a large quantity of meat, bacon, and sausages.

Of the vessels sunk three of the British were armed. Among the crews of the captured vessels are 103 subjects of neutral States, who, as well as enemy subjects, have been removed as prisoners of war in so far as they had taken pay on armed enemy vessels. The commander of the prize crew is Deputy Officer Badewitz.

The bringing in of the Yarrowdale has been kept secret up to this time for military reasons, which, in view of the British Admiralty statement of Jan. 17, were no longer operative.

When Lieutenant Badewitz was asked how he succeeded in bringing the Yarrowdale through the North Atlantic and the North Sea with a crew of only sixteen men and with more than 400 prisoners on board, he replied:

"For such an action you need only to exercise coolness and determined, blunt carelessness, especially if you have to deal with Englishmen. In addition you need to have a handful of smart boys like mine who have their hearts in the right place and revolvers in their pockets. Then you can fetch the devil from his own house. The discipline was first-rate. Whenever the order to go below was issued, the whole crowd of prisoners hurried to the lower decks, running like hares."

Lieutenant Badewitz said he and his officers never left the bridge of the Yarrowdale, and all preparations had been made to sink the ship at a moment's notice from the bridge. All on board, he said, knew that the vessel would be sunk in case of a mutiny. Explosive charges had been placed in the hold, with electric connections that would enable the vessel to be sent to the bottom by touching a button, and this would have been done rather than allow the vessel to be captured by British patrols.

Life on the Möwe

The crew of the Norwegian steamer Pallbjörb gave this interesting account of their experiences:

"One day at the end of November the Pallbjörb saw a large steamer approaching. The stranger changed her course and began manoeuvring in such a manner that the Norwegian thought the crew must have gone mad. Suddenly the vessel came toward the Norwegian steamer and when a few yards away let down her bulwarks, disclosing four large guns. At the same time a German flag was hoisted and an order given to the Pallbjörb to stop. Thirty naval officers and sailors then boarded the Pallbjörb, seized 500 boxes of food, and then sank her. The Captain protested, saying his ship did not carry contraband; but the German officers declared that they disregarded the contraband regulations.

"On board the Möwe was the crew of

ninety-three from the British steamer Voltaire, which was sunk on Nov. 21. On Dec. 6 a Newfoundland trawler was stopped and sunk while on a journey to Gibraltar with fish. The same evening the C. P. R. liner Mount Temple, with a cargo of 750 horses and 5,000 tons of merchandise, was stopped by seven shots. The steward and one sailor were killed, and another sailor had both his legs smashed. The crew, numbering 107, were taken on board. The Mount Temple was finally sunk by bombs, the horses struggling for life in the icy water.

"In the evening of Dec. 10 the large White Star liner Georgic, having on board 1,200 horses, was brought to a halt by shots. Great panic prevailed on board and fifty of the men jumped into the water without their clothes on, but only one of them was drowned. The vessel was then blown up by bombs. Hundreds of horses, swimming toward the Möwe, made desperate efforts to clamber on board, but the German sailors, standing with loaded revolvers, killed them as they reached the ship.

"On Dec. 11 the British steamer Yarrowdale was encountered. As there were already 500 men on board the Möwe, the Captain decided that his latest capture must go to Germany with his prisoners. For a whole day after leaving the Möwe the Yarrowdale was in communication with her by wireless. The Yarrowdale at last got the order to go northward, and the ship then made for the south coast of Iceland, Norway, the Cattegat, &c., and was compelled by storm to anchor near Hveen Island, in the sound, where a German patrol ship appeared. It was at this spot that two British sailors attempted to escape, but they were discovered. They offered violent resistance, and bit and scratched the enemy. The next day the Yarrowdale anchored in Swedish waters and a Swedish destroyer appeared. The 500 prisoners were commanded to go below. The Swedish officer came on board, but failed to find anything suspicious. Meanwhile the Germans stood with their revolvers leveled against the prisoners in the hold.

While the Möwe was still busy it was known that one or more auxiliary raiders

were at work in the same region. The captured British steamer St. Theodore was said to have been fitted out with guns from the Möwe, and there were rumors of a German raider named the Venetia assisting in the work of destruction. A circumstantial account of the sinking of the Venetia by the British cruiser Glasgow on Jan. 25 was told by an officer of that warship.

Exploits of the Seeadler

More tangible, however, was the news brought to Rio Janeiro on March 20 by the French bark Cambronne. A new raider, the Seeadler, (Sea Eagle,) was at work in the South Atlantic and had already sunk eleven vessels. The Cambronne, one of the Seeadler's victims, brought 277 men from the crews of other captured vessels in addition to her own crew of twenty-two. She had encountered the raider on March 7 at a point two-thirds of the way across to the African coast, and had been commanded, after receiving the refugees on board, to proceed to Brazil, a voyage of twenty-two days.

The Seeadler had left Germany on Dec. 22, escorted by a submarine. The commander declared to his prisoners that the German Emperor and the Crown Prince alone knew of the expedition. The vessel's guns and two gasoline launches had been concealed in the hold while she was running the British blockade. On sighting a merchantman the raider would first hoist the Norwegian flag, which would be replaced by a German flag when her prey was within reach of her guns. The commander presented to the Captain of each ship he sank an engraved certificate setting forth the circumstances in which it had been destroyed. The prisoners all said they were well treated aboard and no loss of life had occurred. Five were Americans. The ships sunk, as reported by the American Consul General at Rio de Janeiro, were the British steamers Lady Island, Gladys, Royal Hongar, and sailing vessels Pintors, British Yeoman, Terse; Italian vessel Buenos Aires, and French vessels Charles Gounod, Antoine, Rochebaucauld, and Dupliex, all between January and March in the neighborhood of Madeira and Cape Verde Islands.

Democratic Progress in Germany

THE news of the Russian revolution was hardly known in Berlin before the Imperial Chancellor, von Bethmann Hollweg, appeared before the Prussian Diet, on March 14, and delivered a speech which startled the empire from end to end, (see CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE, April, 1917, Page 37.) "Woe to the statesman who cannot read the signs of the times!" were his words of warning. After the Chancellor's speech declaring that there must be reforms, the debate became tempestuous, the Socialists seizing the opportunity to attack Junkerism and demand the abolition of the Herrenhaus, the Prussian House of Lords. "We are no longer serfs," said Deputy Leinert, a Socialist, "whom the King can buy and sell or order to bleed and die at the word of command." Amid cheers Leinert spoke of the coming time when Junkerism would be swept off the earth. The speech of another Socialist, Adolf Hoffmann, provoked so much commotion that it was cut short, but before he was silenced he made the following remarks:

We shall refuse to vote for the budget. Chancellor von Bethmann Hollweg is merely the fig leaf of military absolutism. Militarism bears the responsibility for the bloodshed in Europe, and only when militarism and despotism are removed will the people breathe freely. Force of arms will not lead to a decision and peace. Distress, desperation, and general collapse will do it.

When both enemies are equally strong the threat of crushing is sheer nonsense. Germany, despite many successes, has not conquered. The German peace proposal with its tone of victory was bound to cause vexation and distrust. She should have communicated her peace terms and thereby dissipated her enemies' distrust.

The revolution in Russia should be a warning to our rulers. The German submarine warfare is opposed to the laws of humanity and international law.

The floodgates of democratic agitation were now open. Philipp Scheidemann, leader of the majority of the Socialist Party in the Reichstag, which had stood behind the Government since the beginning of the war, came out in an article in *Vorwärts* on March 19 with the bold statement, "The whole world sees among

our enemies more or less developed forms of democracy, and in us it sees only Prussians." There was a stormy scene in the Reichstag on March 22, when the Socialist Deputy Kunert charged the Kaiser and the Imperial Chancellor with having been the originators of the war. Another sign of which way the wind was blowing was the election to fill the seat in the lower house of the Prussian Diet which had been vacated by Liebknecht. Dr. Franz Mehring, a member of the anti-war Socialist minority, who at one time had been placed under "preventive arrest," was easily elected, though opposed by a representative of the Socialist majority. The ever-growing scarcity of food was a constant contributor to the popular discontent, and when it was announced that after April 15 the bread ration was to be reduced by one-fourth, it seemed that the breaking point would soon be reached.

But the Junkers, the Prussian Herrenhaus, were not to be easily moved even by the most solemn warnings. They declared against reform of the three-class system of voting for the Diet and all proposals whatever for increasing popular rights. The language of the noblemen who spoke on March 28 was reminiscent of the old days of the divine right of Kings. "My highest war aim," said Count von Roon, "is to maintain the Crown and the monarchy as high as the heavens." Others asserted they would stand by the "good old Prussia." That the power of the Junkers was still very great was shown by the fact that their opposition induced von Bethmann Hollweg to decide that political reform must be postponed till after the war. This decision he announced in the Reichstag on March 29, and instantly there were outbursts of indignation, not only by the Socialists, who are leading the fight for German democracy, but also by such moderates as the National Liberals. The Socialist leader Georg Ledebour made a historic speech, in which he said:

Kerensky [the new Russian Minister of

Justice and a Socialist] is now the most powerful man in Russia, yet he was lately only the leader of a small faction. We are few in the Reichstag, but behind us stands the industrial revolutionary population, true to democratic principles.

We regard a republic as a coming inevitable development in Germany. History is now marching with seven-league boots. The German people, indeed, shows incredible patience. The Reichstag must have the right to a voice in the conclusion of alliances, peace treaties, and declarations of war. The Imperial Chancellor must be dismissed when the Reichstag demands it.

The speech was interrupted by shouts of "High Treason!" Gustav Noske, another Socialist, referred to the "deplorable events" at Hamburg, Magdeburg, and elsewhere, indicating that there had been food riots, the reports of which had been suppressed by the censorship. References to the Russian revolution were frequent, and more than one speaker reminded von Bethmann Hollweg of his words, "Woe to the statesman who cannot read the signs of the times." Finally, despite the Government's intention to postpone reform questions till after the war, the Reichstag adopted by 227 votes against 33 a resolution appointing a committee of twenty-eight members to consider the whole subject of constitutional reform.

The Kaiser, who had kept silent during all this agitation, was roused by President Wilson's message and the declaration of war which followed it, to come out openly in favor of reform. On April 7 it was announced that he had ordered the Imperial Chancellor to submit to him certain proposals for the reform of the Prussian electoral law, to be discussed and put into effect after the conclusion of peace. The text of the Kaiser's order follows:

Never before have the German people proved to be so firm as in this war. The knowledge that the Fatherland is fighting in bitter self-defense has exercised a wonderful reconciling power, and, despite all sacrifices on the battlefield and severe privations at home, their determination has remained imperturbable to stake their last for the victorious issue.

The national and social spirit have understood each other and become united, and have given us steadfast strength. Both of them realized what was built up in long years of peace and amid many internal struggles. This

was certainly worth fighting for. Brightly before my eyes stand the achievements of the entire nation in battle and distress. The events of this struggle for the existence of the empire introduce, with high solemnity, a new time.

It falls to you as the responsible Chancellor of the German Empire and First Minister of my Government in Prussia to assist in obtaining the fulfillment of the demands of this hour by right means and at the right time, and in this spirit shape our political life in order to make room for the free and joyful co-operation of all the members of our people.

The principles which you have developed in this respect have, as you know, my approval.

I feel conscious of remaining thereby on the road which my grandfather, the founder of the empire, as King of Prussia with military organization and as German Emperor with social reform, typically fulfilled as his monarchical obligations, thereby creating conditions by which the German people, in united and wrathful perseverance, will overcome this sanguinary time. The maintenance of the fighting force as a real people's army and the promotion of the social uplift of the people in all its classes was, from the beginning of my reign, my aim.

In this endeavor, while holding a just balance between the people and the monarchy to serve the welfare of the whole, I am resolved to begin building up our internal political, economic, and social life as soon as the war situation permits.

While millions of our fellow-countrymen are in the field, the conflict of opinions behind the front, which is unavoidable in such a far-reaching change of constitution, must be postponed in the highest interests of the Fatherland until the time of the homecoming of our warriors and when they themselves are able to join in the counsel and the voting on the progress of the new order.

Specifying the reforms that were necessary the Kaiser said:

Reform of the Prussian Diet and liberation of our entire inner political life are especially dear to my heart. For the reform of the electoral law of the lower house preparatory work already had been begun at my request at the outbreak of the war.

I charge you now to submit to me definite proposals of the Ministry of State, so that upon the return of our warriors this work, which is fundamental for the internal formation of Prussia, be carried out by legislation. In view of the gigantic deeds of the entire people there is, in my opinion, no more room in Prussia for election by the classes.

The bill will have to provide further for direct and secret election of Deputies. The merits of the upper house and its lasting significance for the State no King of Prussia will misjudge. The upper house will be better able to do justice to the gigantic demands of the coming time if it unites in its midst in more extended and more proportional

manner than hitherto from various classes and vocations of people men who are respected by their fellow-citizens.

The election of the twenty-eight mem-

bers to the Committee on Reforms was fixed for April 24, the date on which the Reichstag was to resume its sittings after the Easter recess.

Reply to the Dardanelles Report

THE report of the Special Parliamentary Commission on the Dardanelles Expedition, which had criticised Lord Kitchener, former Premier Asquith, and Mr. Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty, was the subject of a vigorous attack in Parliament on March 28, 1917. Speeches were made by Mr. Asquith and Mr. Churchill, in which the fairness of the report was challenged and its political use severely rebuked. Mr. Asquith paid a glowing tribute to Lord Kitchener, who had been represented as "a solitary, taciturn autocrat," who took no counsel with any one and insisted on having everything his own way. This Mr. Asquith denied. Lord Kitchener was, indeed, a masterful man and a formidable personality, but the fact was that at the outbreak of war all the General Staff went to France and no soldiers of experience were left in the country. The Government, therefore, in all military matters was bound to defer to Lord Kitchener's unrivaled authority, and no man ever had a heavier burden to carry. Mr. Asquith also revealed the fact that, at the outbreak of war, Lord Kitchener was the only man he ever thought of asking to become Secretary of State for War.

Mr. Asquith, in replying to the criticism that there had been a delay of three weeks in sending reinforcements, said that the delay had been due, not to any vacillation or hesitation, but to two main considerations—first, that the Russian position was so bad at the time that Lord Kitchener feared the Germans might withdraw divisions from the eastern and send them to the western front, and, second, that both the British and French headquarters were putting the strongest pressure on him to dispatch the Twenty-ninth Division to France. Those were "grave and weighty reasons," said Mr.

Asquith, and, he added, "it is so easy to be wise after the event." He held that the Commissioners had not given sufficient weight to these considerations when they passed their censure.

He dealt at some length with the criticisms of the report on his own neglect to summon a War Council between March 19 and May 14. His answer to this was that he had been in daily and hourly consultation with Lord Kitchener and Mr. Churchill, and that the operations were in the hands of the naval men on the spot. But there had been no fewer than thirteen meetings of the Cabinet in that period, and at several the Dardanelles operations had been discussed at length. As for the rôle of the experts at the War Council, Mr. Asquith declared that he had never known them to show the least reluctance to give their opinion, whether invited or uninvited, and though Lord Fisher was known to be averse to the Dardanelles operations, it was not on the ground that they were impracticable, but that his preference was for a different operation in a totally different sphere. Lord Fisher, said Mr. Asquith, was in a minority of one, but he explicitly agreed to undertake the naval operations.

According to Mr. Churchill, everybody on the War Council knew of Lord Fisher's objections, but knew also that they were not objections based on the impracticability of "forcing" the Dardanelles—a very different thing from "rushing" the Dardanelles, which no one ever contemplated. Lord Fisher, insisted Mr. Churchill, never objected to carrying out the operations until the Admiral on the spot changed his mind and advised that the naval attack should not be proceeded with. Mr. Churchill did not conceal his own desire to press the attack with the navy alone, but he was overruled, and then the fatal delays took place.

Toward the close of his speech Mr. Churchill intimated that if naval reinforcements had been furnished the result might have been different, as the Turkish ammunition was about exhausted at the time of the retirement. He likewise affirmed, in a detailed review of the proceedings of the War Council, that the plans for a purely naval attack had received the considered approval of all the naval authorities, including the Admirals on the spot, Sir Henry Jackson, Admiral Oliver, and the French Naval Staff, and that Lord Fisher himself had agreed to carry it out. He contended that this naval attempt to force the Dardanelles was not a rash enterprise foisted upon an unwilling Admiralty, but was the plan of the naval experts themselves.

Mr. Asquith by no means conceded that the expedition was a failure. On the contrary, he asserted that "it absolutely saved the position of Russia in the Caucasus; it prevented for months the defection of Bulgaria to the Central Powers; it kept at least 300,000 Turks immobile; and, what is more important, it cut off and annihilated a corps d'élite, the whole flower of the Turkish Army. The Turks have never recovered to this moment from the blow inflicted upon them,

and it is certainly one of the contributory causes of the favorable developments which we have happily witnessed in the events in Egypt, Mesopotamia, and Persia."

Mr. Churchill, in his defense of the expedition, asked: "What was gained, not what might have been gained, by the naval attack? Was ever any demonstration in the history of the world more potent? The relief to the Grand Duke in the Caucasus was instantaneous. The whole attitude of Bulgaria was changed for the time in our favor. Greece had almost joined us. Lastly, there was Italy. During the progress of the naval attack those negotiations were begun which finally, in the hands of Mr. Asquith, who dealt for all the Allies, culminated in Italy's entrance into the war at the moment when her entrance was most needed and before she could be discouraged by the defeats of the Russians in Galicia, which began a few weeks later. These are the results of failure. Think what might have been the consequences of success. It is a torment to dwell upon them and to think how near was the naval attack to success. Was there even really a reasonably fair chance of its succeeding if it had been persevered in and pushed on?"

Writing War History in France

A contributor to *Le Temps* of Paris has placed on record the measures which self-conscious France is taking to aid the future historian. The article is here translated for CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE.

INSTINCTIVELY we are watching ourselves live in these heroic days. We feel, indeed, that the passionate curiosity of future centuries will be concentrated upon our acts and movements; we have become conscious of the consideration and respect which coming generations will lavish upon the men and things of today. We are secretly flattered by the thought, and, without going so far as to strike a pose before the painters of history, we are beginning discreetly to prepare their palettes and brushes.

We throw furtive glances in the direc-

tion of the mirror that reflects our silhouettes, and try negligently to straighten our cravats. "We men of the middle ages," cries a foreseeing hero of a mediaeval operetta. "We witnesses of the great world cataclysm," already some of our contemporaries are thinking. And, flying the altruistic flag, they are working conscientiously for posterity. The explorers of the past, who later shall undertake a voyage around the great war, will bless the enlightened zeal of these men. They will find themselves in the presence of a fabulously rich mine of documents. We have recently mentioned

the interesting project of Messrs. Honnorat and Alexandre Varenne, intended to bring together in one place complete collections of the newspapers and reviews that have appeared during the war. This plan, formulated after thirty months of war, might seem purely platonic: is it not too late to collect and classify all the fugitive papers scattered in the blast of the tempest? Not at all.

In the first year of the great conflict a wide-awake Minister of Public Instruction asked all the Mayors in France to gather carefully all printed documents relating to the war. He begged them particularly to "collect the newspapers," and explained the exceptional interest attaching to these "mirrors in which are reflected the successive moods of the nation" and the necessity of preserving "the least manifestations of public spirit and the slightest traces of emotion or serenity, as the case may be, with which the people receive administrative measures, or other war news, whether from France or from abroad. * * * At so important a time in our national history this country has assumed an attitude too profoundly honorable for one to neglect preserving proofs of it taken from life, day by day, which posterity must needs accept. On this score it is really desirable to save the whole contemporary product from oblivion."

A series of circulars developed and or-

ganized this noble undertaking. Not only are all our Mayors collecting the local newspapers, the public and private posters, the social and religious documents, the industrial pamphlets, the cartoons, postcards, and photographs of the war period, but in the smallest village of France the representative of the Institute has been invited to take notes methodically of all the events he witnesses. He is to gather up and preserve the "oral tradition" which, in our country districts, is usually the sole depository of the past. He will thus perpetuate remarks, anecdotes, and significant examples and traits, which will constitute an incomparable documentary treasury for those who shall wish to study the soul of France as it is today.

At this moment thousands of attentive pens, under these official orders, are blackening little pieces of paper measuring—our organizers think of everything—"fifteen centimeters by ten." France is an immense classification cabinet, in which these slips of paper are being tirelessly placed on file. They will form an admirable Golden Book of the mind and conscience of our nation.

There is a certain grandeur in this order for the mobilization of a nation's memory. Who will dare henceforth to speak of our lack of foresight? We are leaving nothing to chance. Our papers are in order. History may enter: she will find us waiting for her.

A Song of Sunrise

[On the Morning of the Russian Revolution]

By GEORGE E. WOODBERRY

To those who drink the golden mist
Whereon the world's horizons rest,
Who teach the peoples to resist
The terrors of the human breast—
By burning stake and prison camp
They lead the march of man divine,
Above whose head the sacred lamp
Of liberty doth blaze and shine;
O'er blood and tears and nameless woe
They hail far off the dawning light;
Through faith in them the nations go,
Sun-smitten in the deepest night—
Honor to them from East to West
Be on the shouting earth today!
Holy their memory! Sweet their rest!
Who fill the skies with freedom's ray!

Arab Revolt Against Turkish Rule

Proclamation of the Ulema of Mecca Denouncing the "Janissaries" at Constantinople

THE Ulema of Mecca, the orthodox religious authorities in the holy city of the Moslems, has sent out a proclamation to the faithful which is reproduced herewith as one of the documents of the war. It marks yet another step in the growing revolt in Arabia, which threatens to deprive the Turkish Empire permanently of that historic realm and of the holy cities of Islam. The revolt began in June, 1916, with the rising of El Husein ibn Ali, the Grand Sherif of Mecca, against the rule of the Young Turks on account of their German alliance. He proclaimed Arabia's independence on June 27. In the next two months he and his followers captured all the principal cities on the Red Sea littoral and began to administer a region—desert, oases, and towns—of 24,000 square miles with a population of 3,000,000. Since then he has ruled an increasing section of Arabia under the title of King of the Hedjaz.

Early in September the French and British Governments dispatched a delegation of French Moslems to the Grand Sherif of Mecca for the purpose of congratulating him on his deliverance from Turkey, and of conveying to him a substantial sum of money to aid his revolt. To cover the expense of the expedition the French Minister of Foreign Affairs asked the Chamber of Deputies on Sept. 29, 1916, for 3,500,000 francs, at the same time disclosing the fact that the French Government had furnished a vessel to enable the British and French Moslems to resume their pilgrimages to Mecca by way of Jeddah. Thousands of pilgrims took advantage of this free service, those in October alone numbering 30,000. Among these was Si Kaddor ben Ghabbit, the Moroccan adviser of the Sultan of Turkey. He found a new, hygienic Mecca, free of the assassins and robbers of former years, and declared on his return that the new Kingdom of Arabia was destined to revive the Mos-

lem world in all its former glory and power.

Since then the movement has spread to the interior of Arabia, and has been marked by extensive defections of native tribes from Turkish rule. Peace has been made between two powerful leaders of rival tribes; Emir Arab ar Rawleh, from near Damascus, and Hakim ibn Mahid-Hakim, Emir of the great Anzeh tribe in the vicinity of Aleppo. These two chiefs, formerly enemies, have united and agreed to raise a large troop of horsemen to fight the Turks. The importance of this step is indicated by the fact that the Anzeh and Shamr tribes together are said to number 4,000,000 souls.

It is also asserted that the Sheik Khazai Khan has sent a deputation to the Sherif—otherwise Suleiman I., King of the Hedjaz—announcing his co-operation in the revolt and his readiness to respond to a call for men and money. Thus a large portion of the Mohammedan world, which refused to respond to the Sultan's call for a holy war against the Entente, is now actively lining up against Turkey and the Central Powers.

On Dec. 2, 1916, the United States Government received the following communication from the new kingdom, whose capital is Mecca. It was signed by Fuad el Khatib, Acting Secretary for Foreign Affairs:

In the name of justice and international law we enter a solemn protest to the civilized world against the band of Unionists and affiliates which inflicted all manner of cruelty on the women and children of the innocent population of Alawali and is now repeating its elaborate acts of cruelty even at Medina by sentencing the harmless people and those of Alawali that are still alive to death by hanging and to forced labor.

The echo of these atrocities has been brought to the men in charge of our Army of the West, whose vanguard is in touch with the enemy, by a delegation, comprising every class of the people, that came to them to appeal to the Arabian Government for

protection against such inhuman, heinous crimes.

The Arabian Government, which has shown every regard for the Turkish prisoners of El Taif, including the Vali, commanders, officers, and soldiers, in spite of the misdeeds committed by them and of their setting fire to the houses of Princes, notables, and inhabitants after plundering them, draws your attention to the matter so as to protect itself from blame for any retaliation it may be compelled to apply.

Orthodox Protest from Mecca

A long and important "Proclamation to the Faithful," issued by the Ulema or high priesthood of Mecca, reached the outside world in March, 1917. It adds religious sanction to the rebellion of the holy places against the rule of the Turkish Sultan at Constantinople. The text in English is as follows:

We, the elders and lawyers of the House of God, are among those whom God has permitted to serve the faith and defend its truths. The world and its treasures, in comparison with truth, are not worth the wing of an insect, for there is no other purpose for man in this life except to prepare for eternity.

The Moslem soul rejoices in beholding the Grand "Kaaba" in the first streak of dawn and in the shadow of evening, and he is sanctified by dwelling in the land blessed by the Prophet of God, (the peace of God be upon him.) Can such a man allow his faith to be scorned or see evil befall the things that are holy? Even so it is with us who dwell in this holy place.

We have discerned the hearts of the usurpers of Osman's empire. We have learned their evil purpose with regard to our faith, we have beheld their crimes and wickedness in this our holy land, and our faith has shown us the path of salvation, and in its name we have acted according to our duty to ourselves and the Moslems of the world.

Every Moslem who would consider this matter should seek its cause and ascertain the nature of evil against which we rose in arms, when we found words were of no avail.

As for us, we are absolutely certain that the secret committee of the Young Turk Party has notoriously disobeyed God. No words stayed their hand from crime, and no opposition prevented the evil consequences of their actions. Let no one think that we speak vain things. There stand the facts and events which every man by inquiry can ascertain for himself. We shall bring forth these facts and lay them before the Mohammedan world when necessity demands. Now we content ourselves with begging those of our brethren who oppose us to send some reliable person or persons to Constantinople, the capital of the Unionists, and there witness personally, as we have ourselves witnessed, Moslem women employed by the Government and ex-

posed in public places unveiled before men of strange nations. What do our true Moslem brethren who oppose us in haste think of this matter, an example of an evil that will greatly injure us if it increases and of which we publicly complain?

Would the obedience of people who do such a thing, (and it is the least of their crimes against Islam and Moslems,) be a true obedience or would it be disobedience to God? Never, by the God of the "Kaaba," never. To obey them is to disobey God. Far from it that any of the faithful should consent to this.

We endeavored to please God and avoid a rebellion so long as it was possible. We rebelled in order to please God, and He gave us victory and stood by us in support of His law and religion, and in accordance with a wisdom known to Him which would lead to the uplifting of this people. Every Moslem heart in the Ottoman Empire, even among the Turks in Anatolia and among the members of the Turkish royal family in the palaces, prays God for our success, and God always answers the prayers of the oppressed and the righteous. There is no doubt about it, that if the inhabitants of those countries which the Unionists have lost through their alliance with Germany in this war had revolted against those oppressors, just as we did, they would have no more been regarded as belligerents and would thus have saved their countries for themselves. But if things should continue as they are, no territory will remain for this empire.

If you keep this in mind and remember what the Indian paper Mashrek wrote on Sept. 12 and 19 on the subject of the disqualification of Beni Osman to be the Khalifas of Islam, you will understand that we have risen in order to avert these dangers and to put the Islamic rule on a firm foundation of true civilization according to the noble dictates of our religion. If our revolution were only to preserve the integrity of our country and to save it from what has befallen other Islamic countries, it is enough, and we are amply justified.

We call the attention of those who oppose us to the necessity of saving the other countries from the calamities into which their inhabitants have fallen and to deliver them from the destruction and ruin into which those criminal hands are dragging them, if any true religious enthusiasm is left at all. We have done what we ought to do. We have cleansed our country from the germs of atheism and evil. The best course for those Moslems who still side with and defend this notorious gang of Unionists, is to submit to the will of God before their tongues, hands, and feet give witness against them.

It is a great mistake to suppose that in rising against this party we are rising against a legitimate Khalifa possessing all the legal or, at least, some of the conditions qualifying him to be such.

What does the Mohammedan world say of

the Beni Osman who pretend to be Khalifas of Islam, while for many years they were like puppets in the hands of the Janissaries; tossed about, dethroned, and killed by them, in a manner contrary to the laws and doctrines established in the books of religion on the accession and dethronement of Khalifas—which facts are recorded in their history? History is now repeating itself. To those Janissaries, grandsons have appeared in these days who are repeating the acts enacted in the days of Abdul Aziz, Murad, and Abdul Hamid. The murder of Yussuf Izzedin, the Turkish heir apparent, is too recent to be forgotten.

Those who oppose us and side with the Beni Osman should do one of two things: (1) Consider the Janissaries and their grandsons as the final authority on the question of the Khalifat, which we do not think any reasonable man would do, because it is against the laws of religion; or (2) consider those Janissaries and their grandsons as void of authority on the Khalifat question, in which case we should ask them, "What is the Khalifat and what are its conditions?"

Therefore, it remains for those who oppose us to repent, to come to their senses and

unite with us in appealing to the Moslem world to use all effective measures for the strengthening of Islam and the restoring of its glory.

We want those who are present here to tell you who are far away that we shall confess before Almighty God, on the last day, that today we do not know of any Moslem ruler more righteous and fearing God than the son of His Prophet who is now on the throne of the Arab country. We do not know any one more zealous than he in religion, more servant of the law of God in words and deeds, and more capable of managing our affairs in such a way as would please God. The people of the Holy Land have proclaimed him their King simply because, in so doing, they would be serving their religion and country.

As to the question of the Khalifat, in spite of all that is known of the deplorable condition in which it is situated at the present moment, we have not interfered with it at all and it will remain as it is pending the final decision of the whole Mohammedan world.

Salam to all who hear what is said and believe the good in it. May God lead us all into the path of right.

Proclamation to the People of Bagdad

FOLLOWING is the official English text of the proclamation issued by General Sir Stanley Maude to the people of Bagdad Vilayet, when he captured the historic city on March 11, 1917:

1. In the name of my King, and in the name of the peoples over whom he rules, I address you as follows:

2. Our military operations have as their object the defeat of the enemy and the driving of him from these territories. In order to complete this task I am charged with absolute and supreme control of all regions in which British troops operate; but our armies do not come into your cities and lands as conquerors or enemies, but as liberators.

3. Since the days of Halaka your city and your lands have been subject to the tyranny of strangers, your palaces have fallen into ruins, your gardens have sunk in desolation, and your forefathers and yourselves have groaned in bondage. Your sons have been carried off to wars not of your seeking, your wealth has been stripped from you by unjust men, and squandered in distant places.

4. Since the days of Midhat, the Turks have talked of reforms, yet do not the ruins and wastes of today testify the vanity of those promises?

5. It is the wish not only of my King and his peoples, but it is also the wish of the

great nations with whom he is in alliance, that you should prosper even as in the past, when your lands were fertile, when your ancestors gave to the world literature, science, and art, and when Bagdad City was one of the wonders of the world.

6. Between your people and the dominions of my King there has been a close bond of interest. For 200 years have the merchants of Bagdad and Great Britain traded together in mutual profit and friendship. On the other hand, the Germans and Turks, who have despoiled you and yours, have for twenty years made Bagdad a centre of power from which to assail the power of the British and the allies of the British in Persia and Arabia. Therefore, the British Government cannot remain indifferent as to what takes place in your country now or in the future, for in duty to the interests of the British people and their allies, the British Government cannot risk that being done in Bagdad again which has been done by the Turks and Germans during the war.

7. But you people of Bagdad, whose commercial prosperity and whose safety from oppression and invasion must ever be a matter of the closest concern to the British Government, are not to understand that it is the wish of the British Government to impose upon you alien institutions. It is the hope of the British Government that the aspirations of your philosophers and writers shall be realized, and that once again the people of Bagdad shall flourish, enjoying

their wealth and substance under institutions which are in consonance with their sacred laws and their racial ideals. In Hejaz the Arabs have expelled the Turks and Germans who oppressed them and proclaimed the Sherif Hussein as their King, and his Lordship rules in independence and freedom, and is the ally of the nations who are fighting against the power of Turkey and Germany; so, indeed, are the noble Arabs, the Lords of Koweit, Nejd, and Asir.

8. Many noble Arabs have perished in the cause of Arab freedom, at the hands of those alien rulers, the Turks, who oppressed them. It is the determination of the Government of Great Britain and the great powers allied to Great Britain, that these noble Arabs shall not have suffered in vain. It is the hope and desire of the British people and the nations in alliance with them that the Arab race may rise once more to greatness

and renown among the peoples of the earth, and that it shall bind itself together to this end in unity and concord.

9. O people of Bagdad, remember that for twenty-six generations you have suffered under strange tyrants who have ever endeavored to set one Arab house against another in order that they might profit by your dissensions. This policy is abhorrent to Great Britain and her allies, for there can be neither peace nor prosperity where there is enmity and misgovernment. Therefore, I am commanded to invite you, through your nobles and elders and representatives, to participate in the management of your civil affairs in collaboration with the political representatives of Great Britain who accompany the British Army, so that you may be united with your kinsmen in north, east, south, and west in realizing the aspirations of your race.

Italy's Military Progress in 1916

An Official Summary

THE report of the Italian Supreme Command for the period of September to December, 1916, contains this birdseye view of the actual results of the whole year's operations, under date of Dec. 26:

Looking back on the year which is drawing to its close, the Italian Army has reason for legitimate satisfaction and pride in all the efforts made, the difficulties overcome, and the victories achieved.

The development of its military power was effected in the Winter of 1915-16, thanks to the wonderful work of reorganization and production, in which the whole nation participated. In the Spring we sustained in the Trentino the powerful, long-prepared Austrian offensive, which the enemy with insolent effrontery styled a punitive expedition against our country. But after the first successes, which were due to the preponderance of material means collected, above all in artillery, the proposed invasion was quickly stopped and the enemy was counterattacked and forced to retire in haste into the mountains, leaving on the Alpine slopes the flower of his army and paying bitterly the price for his fallacious enterprise not only here but also on the plains of Galicia.

Our army did not rest after its wonderful effort. While maintaining a vigorous pressure on the Trentino front, in order to gain better positions and to deceive the enemy as to our intentions, a rapid retransfer of strong forces to the Julian front was made. In the first days of August began that irresistible offensive which, in two days only, caused the fall of the very strong fortress of Gorizia and

of the formidable system of defenses on the Carso to the west of the Vallone. Doberdò, San Michele, Sabotino—names recalling sanguinary struggles and slaughter—ceased to be for the Austro-Hungarian Army the symbols of a resistance vaunted insuperable, and became the emblems of brilliant Italian victories. The enemy's boastful assertions of having inexorably arrested our invasion on the front selected and desired by himself were refuted at one stroke.

From that day our advance on the Carso was developed constantly and irresistibly. It was interrupted by pauses indispensable for the preparation of the mechanical means of destruction without which the bravest attacks would lead only to the vain sacrifice of precious human lives.

Our constant and full success on the Julian front is witnessed by 42,000 prisoners, 60 guns, 200 machine guns, and the rich booty taken between the beginning of August and December.

Also on the rest of the front our indefatigable troops roused the admiration of all who saw them for their extraordinary efforts to overcome not only the forces of the enemy but also the difficulties of nature.

The coming year is looked forward to by our army with serenity and confidence. Our soldiers are supported by the unanimous approval of the nation, by faith in themselves and in the justice of their cause. They face willingly their hard and perilous life, under the guidance of their beloved sovereign, who from the first day of the war with a rare constancy has shared their fortunes. Our army is waiting in perfect readiness to renew the effort which will carry it to the fulfillment of the unfailing destiny of our people.

Military Operations of the War

By Major Edwin W. Dayton

Inspector General, National Guard, State of New York; Secretary, New York Army and Navy Club.

Major Dayton has long had the official recognition of the United States War Department as an authority on strategy and tactics. He is one of the experts who have chronicled the present war for The Army and Navy Journal. The article here presented is the third in a series which Major Dayton is writing for CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE, covering in a rapid and authoritative narrative all the military events of importance since the beginning of the great European conflict.

III.—The Great Battle of Ypres

In the previous articles we have reviewed events of the Summer and early Autumn of 1914 in Belgium and France. Having followed the progress of the invading German armies across Belgium and down into the heart of France, we saw their scouts almost in the environs of Paris before the tide of war turned. Defeated on the Marne, the Germans retreated to the fortified lines above the Aisne, where they succeeded in halting the pursuit of French and British armies eager to keep up the drive. By the middle of October the manoeuvres by which each sought to win the control of the Channel coasts had resulted in a mutual extension of the battle lines until they confronted each other all the way from Westende, south of Ostend, through Belgium and France to the Swiss frontier. That situation was destined to continue for long and bloody years despite frequent efforts on both sides to break through.

In October and November the Germans made an enormous effort to smash a way through to Calais, and some of the hardest fighting of the whole war developed. The Allies, believing that Antwerp could hold out, had hoped to keep the Germans back of the Scheldt until the concentration of a strong Franco-British force between Ghent and Antwerp would provide the means for turning the German right flank and cutting the northern communications of the armies further south. The plan failed when Antwerp fell, and the French then endeavored to execute a flanking

manoeuvre by crossing the Lys and the Scheldt between Lille and Ghent.

La Bassée and Arras were important points south of Lille which were essential to the success of General Joffre's strategy. Both sides hurried every man who could be spared from the Aisne up to the northern battlefield, and new armies from home gave greatly needed reinforcement. As the campaign progressed, the turning movement was repulsed and the Allies found themselves involved in a desperate struggle to prevent the Germans from turning their flank and winning a way to the Channel ports.

First Battle of Ypres

A great battle opened on Oct. 12, 1914, and lasted until Nov. 20, on a front of about forty miles between Lille and the mouth of the Yser. The struggle reached its climax before Ypres, and the battle bears the name of that town. The casualties, Belgian, British, French, and German, probably exceeded 350,000.

General Foch's Tenth French Army had failed to turn the German right flank, and General French had successfully moved the whole British force from the Aisne to its new northern position. On Oct. 12 British divisions had crossed the Aire-Bethune canal and were systematically driving back the dismounted German cavalrymen, who contested stubbornly every foot of the way. By the 17th General French's men reached the village of Herlies, in the hills between La Bassée and Armentières, and Aubers, another village in the same sector, was

taken—French cavalrymen captured Fromelles. On the 18th, British attacks upon La Bassée failed. The Second Royal Irish captured Le Pilly, where they were surrounded and killed or captured almost to a man.

About this time strong German reinforcements reached the scene, and the British, under General Smith-Dorrien, relinquished the offensive, although they, too, were reinforced by the arrival of the

British brigades and batteries. Meanwhile Pulteney's (third) corps on the left was likewise heavily engaged in a series of battles along the River Lys, nearer to Armentières.

Late in October several new German corps came up in front of Ypres, and General Rawlinson led the British Seventh Division of veteran regular troops in an advance upon Menin, an important point southeast of Ypres. He met heavy resistance on the front and was strongly attacked on the left flank, but succeeded in regaining his original positions, although with severe losses. The arrival of General Haig's (first) corps rescued the famous Seventh Division from threatened destruction.

British in Grave Peril

General Haig's corps, just from the Aisne, was assigned by General French to a position north of the left flank of the Seventh Division. On Oct. 21, in a series of terrific attacks, some of the Germans penetrated the lines of the Twenty-first Brigade and found cover in woods behind the position. For several days after this the officers of the Second Yorkshire Regiment kept each alternate man facing the opposite direction to reply to rifle fire coming from both front and rear. On Oct. 22 and again on the 24th and 25th German storming columns smashed their way through the thin British lines, but were eventually held by reserves skillfully employed at critical moments.

As the British struggled to hold the sectors about Ypres the gallant Belgians held on successfully to their intrenched positions along Ypres Canal and the Yser River. On Oct. 29 the Germans made a tremendous attack upon the re-entering angles of the British salient in front of Ypres, on the north at Bixschoote, and on the south between Zandvoorde and Hollebeke. The head of the salient was at the crossroads at Gheluvelt, five miles east of Ypres, on the Ypres-Menin road, and early in the day the Germans forced one of the British divisions out of its trenches in this sector.

On the morning of the 30th the German artillery fire became unbearable and



MARSHAL SIR JOHN FRENCH

first native Indian contingent, the Lahore Division, under General Watkis. Smith-Dorrien's corps of about 37,500 men had lost 10,000 men in August, 10,000 in September, and 5,000 up to the middle of October. Although the losses were in part replaced by drafts of fresh men, the corps was well-nigh exhausted by continual fighting, and suffered severely in the next few days, when the Germans attacked fiercely near Neuve Chapelle and Givenchy.

Between Oct. 12 and 29 Smith-Dorrien's (second) corps suffered additional casualties of 360 officers and 8,200 men. On the 29th they were temporarily relieved by Indian troops stiffened by

many of the British trenches had to be abandoned. Sometimes a whole troop would be buried alive by the storm of high explosive shells, which fairly churned the earth along the British lines. Sir Douglas Haig was determined to hold the critical salient head at Gheluvelt, although the angle had grown even sharper when regiments north of the village were forced to fall back a mile to the ridge of Klein Zillebeke.

One after the other, regiments whose names have been part of British history for centuries were sent in to stop the Teuton rush along the Ypres-Menin road. The German Emperor urged the attack and had assured his officers that a victory at Ypres would end the war. There can be little question that it would have meant at least the destruction of the British expeditionary army then in France. In addition to the reverses north of Gheluvelt, General Haig's men on the south were driven out of Hollebeke and down on St. Eloi. Supports coming up were soon heavily engaged about Messines.

On Oct. 31, in early morning attacks along the centre of the battle line, two British brigades were driven back and the Coldstream Guards practically destroyed. The entire division in this sector was driven back to the woods beyond Hooge, and this retreat uncovered the flank of the Seventh Division. The Royal Scots Fusiliers, attempting to hold their trenches in the face of overwhelming forces, were completely cut off and annihilated. This battalion had brought over a thousand men to Flanders and mustered seventy when this day's work was done.

General Moussy's battalions from the Ninth French Corps rendered great aid at a critical moment near Klein Zillebeke, and later the French Sixteenth Corps gave greatly needed reinforcement.

Crisis of the Battle

Sir John French has since said that the crisis of the whole campaign was in the middle of the afternoon on this last day of October. The whole British

line had suffered terribly and was undoubtedly very near the breaking point.* Threatened disaster was averted by a magnificent charge by the Second Worcesters supported by the Second Oxford Light Infantry and the field artillery. This counterattack destroyed the German initiative along the line of direct attack on the highway, and by nightfall the British had regained several of the lost positions.

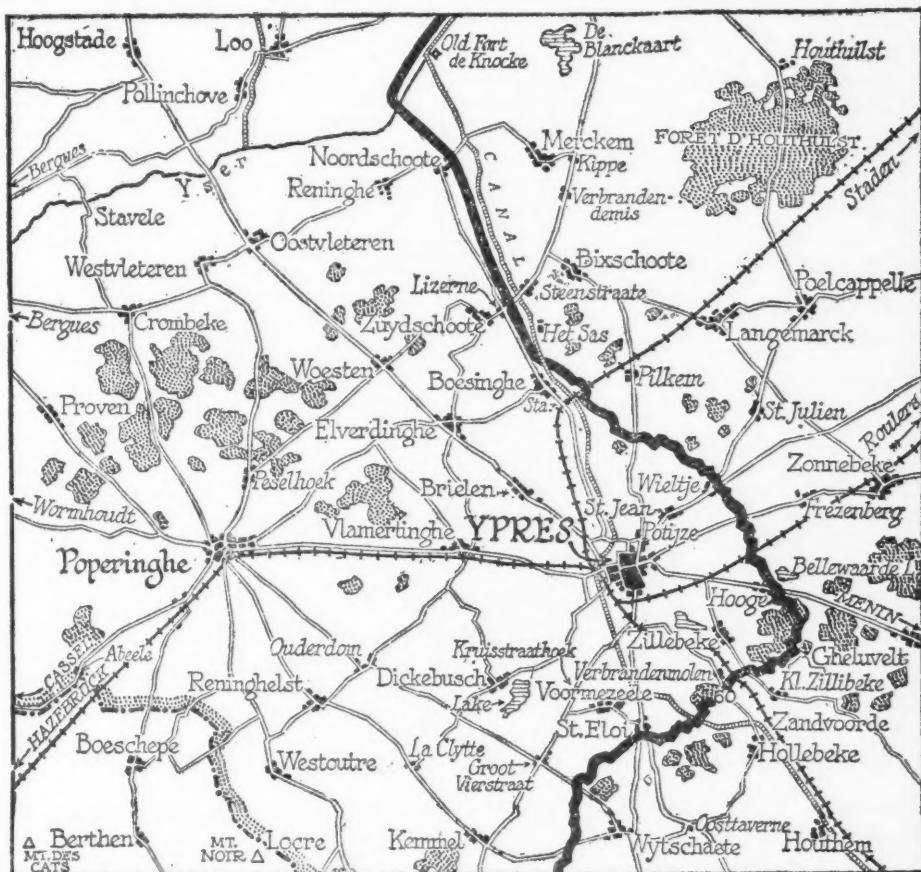
On Sunday, Nov. 1, considerable British and French reinforcements arrived, but a strong German assault won Hollebeke and Messines, which enabled the German gunners to shell Ypres. Wytschaete, too, was taken, but recaptured later. The Germans held Messines against continuous counterattacks. In the fighting up to this time the Seventh Division had been reduced from 400 officers and 12,000 men to about 3,000.

On Nov. 6, after a period of heavy artillery attacks, the German infantry attacked the Klein Zillebeke positions, and it required the utmost courage of both British and French to stem the rush. Generals Bulfin and Moussy were the commanders on this hard-fought field, where the honors fell to the British Household Cavalry. The day was won by the First and Second Life Guards and the Blues.

On Nov. 11 the First and Fourth Brigades of the Prussian Guards attacked under the eye of the Emperor and pierced the British lines on the Menin road at several places, but failed to drive the attack home.

While the British had been struggling through these long weeks to hold Ypres, General Dubois with the French Ninth Corps had performed prodigies of valor between Zonnebeke and Bixschoote. Helped by territorial divisions and de Mitry's Second Cavalry Corps, Dubois held Bixschoote against the most violent attacks of great German forces. Regi-

* It is related that the loss of Ypres seemed so imminent that the breech-blocks had actually been taken from the heavy guns to disable them before falling into German hands. Some of the field guns were being moved back from the town.



SCENE OF CLIMAX OF THE BATTLE OF YPRES. THE BLACK LINE INDICATES THE BATTLE FRONT AS IT REMAINED FOR TWO AND A HALF YEARS AFTERWARD

ment after regiment was hurled to destruction in the effort to win this place, which covered the British forces to the south. The Germans renewed their efforts against the British positions on Nov. 12 and again on the 17th, but by the 20th large French reinforcements came up, and as the Winter storms began the German assaults died down.

This great battle was distinguished by the heroic courage and magnificent professional skill of the finest troops the combatants possessed. New organizations, such as the London Scottish, won undying fame beside the most highly trained professional soldiers of the regular regiments. The Germans employed in the neighborhood of a million men to win the war in this their last great offensive on the western front, and among

that great host were included at least six corps of their first-line troops. Sir Henry Rawlinson's famous Seventh Division of British regulars held the salient in the line against odds estimated at 8 to 1. When finally withdrawn at the end of the battle this division had 44 officers left out of 400.

Battle of Neuve Chapelle

On Dec. 14, 1914, a combined attack by Scotch and French regiments was made upon positions southwest of Wytschaete and some small gains made. Earlier in this month the French under Maud'huy carried a fortified château at Vermelles, south of the Bethune-La Bassée Canal, and about the middle of December the Lahore Division of the Indian Army and the Meerut Division of

the same service won temporary successes, but later suffered dangerous reverses in the region of Neuve Chapelle, three miles northwest of La Bassée, and near Festubert, about the same distance west of that point.

A severe battle raged on Dec. 20 about Givenchy, a village in front of Festubert, where both Indian brigades and British regiments were soundly beaten. Sir John French sent strong reinforcements into the firing line, and on the 21st some of the lost ground was retaken. At noon on the 22d Sir Douglas Haig took command in the danger zone, and on that night and the following day the British position was re-established in the various places where the Indian troops had proved unable to withstand the evening's assaults. In the earlier stages of this battle the British forces showed less efficiency and stamina than on any other field in the war. The staff arrangements seem to have been imperfectly planned, and severe losses were due to poor leadership. Disaster threatened at Givenchy until Haig took command and, with British and French troops, saved the day.

The Winter of 1914-15

When the battles near La Bassée ended, the campaign in the north quieted down. To the south in the Argonne the Crown Prince was very active, and a number of minor battles were fought. The French held their own splendidly in this domain of minor tactics, where there was—and, indeed, has continued ever since—incessant skirmishing which frequently developed into combats of considerable importance. General Sarrail at Verdun held his own, and did more, for gradually his entrenched positions were enlarged on the east front of the fortress in the direction of Metz.

The War in Serbia

Recalling the complete defeat of Austria's first invasion of Serbia in August, we will proceed to a further consideration of this theatre of the war. Austria lost 40,000 men killed and wounded, and 50 guns, in the first attempt at a punitive expedition into the region which had been the cause of the outbreak of the

war. The Russian campaign on the east had necessitated pulling every available soldier out of the Balkans for use on the frontiers of Poland and Galicia, and the Serbs undertook an attack aimed at Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. On Sept. 14 the frontier position at Vishegrad was captured, and a force which had crossed the Save at night took the town of Semlin on Sept. 6 and silenced batteries which had been bombarding Belgrade.

The Austrians gathered a new army along the Drina, and early in September crossed that river, but on the arrival of Serbian reinforcements were defeated and driven back. The battle continued for ten days, but by the 17th the Austrian attack was definitely repulsed.

Meanwhile the Serbs were unable to make much progress in their attempt on Sarajevo, and by the end of October the Austrians resumed the attack, with Nish, to which the Serbian Court had retired, as the main objective. An Austrian army of about 300,000 men invaded Serbia in November and a hard-fought campaign followed among the mountain ridges of the interior, to which Crown Prince Alexander and General Putnik retired.

Early in December the Austrian commander, confident that his invasion was to be an easy victory, sent several corps back to assist in the effort against Russia in the Carpathians. The aged King Peter joined his army. On Dec. 3 and 4 a heavy battle was fought among the ridges of Rudnik and Maljen, and at Ushitzia. By the morning of the 6th the Serbs had won a complete and astonishing victory. The Austrians were a routed and broken remnant of an army, hotly pursued all the way to the border by the hardy Serbian veterans. Forty thousand Austrian prisoners were taken, and their casualties were very heavy.

The Serbs recaptured the capital at Belgrade on Dec. 14-15, and the second Austrian attempt to invade the land had ended in complete and disastrous defeat.

The War in Africa

Within the period of Germany's commercial expansion which followed the victories of 1870 a wonderful scheme of foreign colonization had been developed

on the coasts of China, in Polynesia, and especially in Africa. In the Dark Continent vast regions became German colonies or protectorates, and of course this expansion was regarded most jealously by the other European nations, whose arms were already elbow deep in the African grab bag. Germany built roads and railroads, and had apparently started a movement which would in time have made great returns for the large sums spent in development.

On the Atlantic side, Togoland was located above the north shores of the Gulf of Guinea, while the much larger Cameroon lay on the east coast of the same gulf. Southwest Africa was an enormous territory west of the old Boer republic, now absorbed into British South Africa. On the Indian Ocean German East Africa was another huge protectorate whose northern frontier nearly touched the equator, while the southern border touched Mozambique well below the tenth parallel. This colony contained Mount Kilimanjaro, which was first surveyed by the German explorer von der Decken, and the greater part of Lake Victoria Nyanza. There are several good ports on the seacoast, and this colony was one with great possibilities both in mining and agriculture.

Early in August, 1914, a British cruiser captured Lome, the port of Togoland, and the small German garrison retreated into the interior. French and British expeditions invaded the colony from the Gold Coast and Dahomey, and by Aug. 27, after very little fighting, all Togoland had passed into possession of the Allies.

Late in August, Cameroon was invaded by a British column, which met a reverse on the 30th in an attack upon the forts on the Benue River. The British commander and a number of other officers were killed, and nearly half of the native force under their command was lost. Another column, which entered Cameroon from Calabar, after some initial successes was completely routed at Nsanapong in a night attack. The losses here were heavy. On Sept. 27 a mixed Anglo-French force captured the German port at Duala and another

coast town called Bonaberi. British warships from the mouth of the Cameroon River rendered great assistance. By October the Germans had been driven back into the wild interior and the Allies were in complete control of the coast and the rivers.

General Botha's Achievement

In the important colony of German Southwest Africa the Governor abandoned the coast stations early in August, 1914, and concentrated his defense in the interior at Windhoek. When the Parliament of British South Africa met on Sept. 8 skirmishing was in progress along the frontier, and General Botha announced a policy of active aggression against the Germans in the west. Fighting occurred at several places along the Orange River, and on Sept. 18 a British naval expedition captured the seaport at Suderitz Bay. In this colony the Germans had between 5,000 and 10,000 men, with considerable artillery. General Botha raised in the British colonies about 7,000 men, and by the end of September skirmishing was in progress at a number of frontier points. At Sandfontein a small British column was trapped, and after a hard fight the survivors surrendered.

Early in October a rebellion occurred in the northwest section of Cape Province, led by Colonel Maritz, who commanded the British forces in the region, but who had fought on the Boer side in the South African war. Martial law was declared in the British colonies, and in several engagements Maritz, who had a force of about 2,000 men, was completely defeated and driven out of the colony.

A much more serious rebellion developed in the old Orange Free State and the Western Transvaal under such renowned veterans of the Boer war as Generals de Wet and Beyers, assisted by a number of other veteran leaders in South African wars. At Pretoria the burghers rallied to the loyal Botha, who soon raised an army of more than 30,000 fighting men. On Oct. 27 Botha defeated and dispersed the rebels under Beyers and Kemp south of the town of Rustenberg. The defeated forces rallied, and at Lichtenburg defeated a force under

Colonel Alberts, which attempted to cut off the retreat, but after several reverses this section of the rebel army was finally defeated and dispersed by Colonel van der Venter on Nov. 8 at Sandfontein, sixty miles from Pretoria. Another part of the force defeated at Rustenberg had taken refuge in the Orange Free State, led by Beyers and Kemp, who were finally defeated near the junction of the Vaal and the Vet and dispersed toward the wild interior.

The old-time genius of South African fighting had deserted de Wet, and his campaign was short. On Nov. 7, at Doornberg, his force of about 2,000 defeated a Union column under Col. Cronje, and de Wet's son was killed. By Nov. 11 General Botha, having cleared up the Transvaal, began to close in on de Wet's forces and administered a severe defeat to them. After further reverses de Wet and a few faithful adherents were captured on Dec. 1 at Waterberg, a hundred miles west of Mafeking. By the end of December, after a number of engagements with scattered commandoes, the rebellion was practically stamped out. Beyers was drowned while attempting to swim the Vaal. De Wet and Muller were prisoners, and Kemp had escaped into German territory.

German East Africa

In East Africa the Germans had an army which numbered close to ten thousand, of whom perhaps 30 per cent. were white. In British East Africa and Uganda the British forces all told seem not to have exceeded 1,500. On Aug. 13, 1914, a British cruiser bombarded Dar-es-Salam and destroyed the harbor works, and on Lake Nyassa a British steamer attacked German vessels. In September several small battles were fought along the frontier between the German colony and Rhodesia to the south as well as on the frontier to the north bordering British East Africa. Important British reinforcements arrived from India with artillery in time to prevent a German attack upon the British railway from the sea at Mombasa across the colony to Lake Victoria Nyanza. In seven or eight engagements on the coast and along the northern frontier the Ger-

mans were uniformly beaten, and by October their campaign had run its course with only a few minor points occupied on the British side of the line.

The British were content to maintain a successful defense while awaiting further reinforcements promised from India for November. This new expeditionary force arrived on the East African coast on Nov. 1 and proceeded to attack the German port of Tanga, the terminus of the Maschi Railway. An attempt to storm the defenses on Nov. 4 met with a disastrous repulse, in which the British lost 800 men, and the expeditionary army withdrew to the north, where it became an army of observation along the frontier for the next few months.

The Japanese in China

Japan, having declared war upon Germany late in August, 1914, proceeded to capture Germany's well-fortified position at Tsing-tao on the China coast. The Japanese Army, with a peace strength of 250,000 and a war strength of 1,000,000, was, so to speak, at the door of this German post hopelessly remote from European assistance. The powerful Japanese Navy controlled the eastern sea and had doubled in strength since the Russian war. Several British warships co-operated in the attack upon Tsing-tao. The German garrison numbered 5,000 men, occupying an intrenched camp and modernized Brialmont forts with concrete and steel construction. Under naval convoy a strong Japanese force landed, and by the end of September had advanced along the peninsula to a point where their artillery dominated the German forts. A small British force from Wei-hai-Wei landed and co-operated with the Japanese in the reduction of the German fortifications. General Kamio, the Japanese commander, had a heavy siege train of 140 guns, including some 11-inch howitzers, which quite outclassed in range and weight anything possessed by the Germans. The Japanese warships joined in the bombardment, and fort after fort was crushed by heavy shell fire from both land and sea. The Germans finally surrendered on Nov. 10, 1914.

IN THE PATH OF THE GERMAN RETREAT



View of the Once Prosperous Town of Bapaume, Which the German Army Wrecked Before Evacuating It

(Official Press Bureau)



Public Square in Peronne, With Burned and Bombed Houses, and a Unique Message Left by the Departing Germans.

(Medem Photo Service)

RUINS LEFT BY GERMANS IN RETREAT



French Army Engineers at Work in Noyon Repairing Streets
Blown Up by the Departing Germans
(Underwood & Underwood)

German Vandalism During the Retreat in France

SINCE November the German military authorities had been preparing to withdraw from the most seriously threatened portions of their lines in France, and on Friday, March 16, 1917, the preparations were complete. The last batteries on the long front between Arras and Soissons were withdrawn that night, though rear guards remained in the trenches, making a show of activity until the following night, when they too withdrew, marching swiftly and silently into the darkness toward the north.

At 8:30 in the evening the last troops left Noyon. The inhabitants were fiercely ordered to remain in their cellars on pain of bombardment. On the morning of Sunday, the 18th, when they timidly emerged there was not a German to be seen. A few moments later a French cavalry patrol trotted cautiously to the edge of the town and was greeted with weeping and cheers by the inhabitants. After two and a half years of exile and slavery they were again in France!

The conduct of the German Army in retreat revealed the fact that it was under orders to devastate the abandoned territory, and the thoroughness with which it acted on these orders has left one of the most sensational records of "frightfulness" in the annals of the great war.

French Note of Protest

The French Government at once charged its representatives in all neutral countries to enter a protest against these "acts of barbarism and devastation." The text of this note, signed by Premier Ribot, is as follows:

The Government of the republic is now gathering the elements of protest which it intends sending to neutral Governments against acts of barbarism and devastation committed by the Germans in French territory which they are evacuating while retreating. At this time I ask you to make known to the Government to which you are accredited that we intend to denounce before

universal judgment the unqualifiable acts indulged in by the German authorities. No motive demanded by military necessities can justify the systematic devastation of public monuments, artistic and historical, as well as public property, accompanied by violence against persons. Cities and villages in their entirety have been pillaged, burned, and destroyed; private homes stripped of all furniture, which the enemy has carried off; fruit trees have been torn up or rendered useless for future production; streams and wells have been poisoned. The inhabitants, relatively few in number, who have not been removed have been left with a minimum of rations, while the enemy seized stocks supplied by the neutral revictualing commission which were destined for the civil population.

You will point out that this concerns not acts destined to hinder the operations of our armies, but of devastation having no connection with this object and having for its purpose the ruin for years to come of one of the most fertile regions of France.

The civilized world can only revolt against this conduct on the part of a nation which wanted to impose its culture on it, but which reveals itself once again as quite close to barbarism still, and, in a rage of disappointed ambition, tramples on the most sacred rights of humanity.

Pillage and Destruction

At the same time the French Government charged that safes had been robbed, notably at Péronne, where a branch of the Bank of France was pillaged and large amounts of stocks and bonds were taken by the departing troops. Press dispatches also stated that securities to the amount of \$3,600,000 were taken from the banks in Noyon. Premier Ribot, who is also Foreign Minister, instructed the representatives of France in neutral countries to warn bankers against having anything to do with these stolen securities, declaring that France and the Allies would not recognize as valid any transaction based upon negotiable paper which the Germans had seized in violation of The Hague Convention.

The region evacuated by the Germans was approximately forty miles long and twenty-five deep, or a total of 1,000

square miles, containing between 350 and 400 towns and villages, and a population of nearly 200,000 before the war. This whole section of the fairest lands in France is described by all eyewitnesses as a vast wreck, a heartrending chaos of burned villages and farms, blasted roads and bridges, felled fruit trees, polluted wells, and looted homes. Philip Gibbs, the war correspondent, wrote on March 21:

"The Germans have spared nothing on the way of their retreat. They have destroyed every village in their abandonment with systematic and detailed destruction. Not only in Bapaume and Péronne have they blown up or burned all the houses which were untouched by shellfire, but in scores of villages they laid waste the cottages of poor peasants and all their little farms and all their orchards. At Béthonvillers this morning, to name only one village out of many, I saw how each house was marked with a white cross before it was gutted with fire. The cross of Christ was used to mark the work of the devil, for truly it has been the devil's work.

"Even if we grant that the destruction of houses in the wake of retreat is the recognized cruelty of war there are other things I have seen which are not pardonable, even under that damnable code of morality. In Bapaume and Péronne, in Roye and Nesle and Lianecourt, and all these places over a wide area the German soldiers not only blew out the fronts of houses, but with picks and axes smashed mirrors and furniture and picture frames. As a friend of mine said, a cheapjack would not give fourpence for anything left in Péronne, and that is strictly true also of Bapaume. There is nothing but filth in those two towns. Family portraits have been kicked into the gutters. Black bonnets of old women who once lived in those houses lie about the rubbish heaps and by some strange pitiful freak these are almost the only signs left of the inhabitants who lived here before the Germans wrecked their houses.

"The ruins of houses are bad to see when done deliberately, even when shell-

fire spared them in the war zone, but worse than that is the ruin of women and children and living flesh. I saw that ruin today in Roye and Nesle. I was at first rejoiced to see how the first inhabitants were liberated after being so long in hostile lines. I approached them with a queer sense of excitement, eager to stop with them, but instantly when I saw those women and children in the streets and staring at me out of windows I was struck with the chill of horror. The women's faces were dead faces, shallow and masklike and branded with the memory of great agonies. The children were white and thin, so thin that the cheekbones protruded and many of them seemed to me idiot children. Hunger and fear had been with them too long."

Wells Polluted by Order

Outside of the ruined cities, not only were all the bridges and cross roads blown up with mines—a legitimate military measure to hinder pursuit—but cottages and farmhouses that were once the homes of nearly 100,000 peasant farmers were rendered uninhabitable by means of specially prepared bombs. Written orders were captured which directed the blowing up of all houses, wells, and cellars, except those occupied by rearguards, and these were to be made uninhabitable upon leaving. Farming implements were gathered in heaps and burned, peasants' carts were hacked to pieces, all the spokes of the wheels being cut out, in some cases with infinite labor. Fruit trees everywhere were sawed off near the ground, or, if time pressed, were girdled so as to insure their death. Wherever a house was spared it was rendered filthy.

Every well also was rendered useless by pollution, so that the homeless people were compelled to get all their drinking water in barrels from outside the looted region. This pollution of the wells was also done under German official orders, as demonstrated by a written order found on the battlefield, dated March 14. It was addressed to the Second Squadron, Sixth German Cuirassiers,

Thirty-eighth Division, and gave instructions to this end.

The wife of the village doctor at Nesle, who had housed the German regimental staff, protested to a German Lieutenant against the willful destruction of her furniture. He appeared to regret what his men were doing, but said:

"I cannot do otherwise. It is by command."

A number of German doctors who lodged for months in one of the finest mansions of Roye summoned the aged mistress of the house on the morning of March 16 and said: "We are going to give Roye back to the French. We hope they will like it." They then went through the house, firing revolvers at the mirrors and smashing furniture in the drawing-room and bedrooms. In many other houses the same scene was repeated, and pictures, clocks, and family papers were carried away.

In Péronne a famous avenue of shade trees was left prostrate, and scarcely a house was undamaged. Not a living human being remained. Péronne was a dead town, like Bapaume, like Ypres, like all the villages in the wake of the German retreat. The first correspondents who penetrated through the chaos to the Grande Place found a large board hung upon a shattered wall and bearing the ironic words: "Nicht ärgern, nur wundern." (Do not be annoyed, only be astonished.) It was the greeting of the departing Germans to the incoming Britons.

Coucy Castle, one of the most splendid remaining relics of the thirteenth century, was utterly blasted from the face of the earth. Nothing is left but a great pile of massive crumpled masonry and pulverized rock of what was one of the strongest and most historic castles of Europe.

So enraged were the French at this act of destruction that they refused to bombard the ruins, where the Germans had intrenched machine gunners. Instead infantry, unsupported by artillery, charged over a plain swept by German machine gun fire and wrenched the sacred spot from the enemy.

Before they left, the Germans boasted to the French inhabitants that thirty tons of explosives were used to destroy the castle. Pieces of its ancient masonry were spread over 10,000 square yards. Not a vestige remains of the great tower which Cardinal Mazarin's engineers vainly tried to blow up in the seventeenth century. Coucy Castle had been set aside as a historical museum.

Pitiful Streams of Fugitives

A correspondent who accompanied the French Army in its advance from Noyon, Chauny, and Tergnier, on March 21, wrote that the path of the retreating Germans was marked with the smoke of burning farms for fifteen miles. Along the road back from Tergnier and Noyon poured an unending stream of refugees from these blazing farms and villages. Nearly all were women—pitiful in their destitution, a few scant pieces of clothing saved and strapped on their backs, or pushing baby carriages, or wheelbarrows with tiny tots tucked therein. Younger children clung to their skirts or themselves toddled along under the weight of bundles.

"Their stories were all alike. For weeks before the retreat started the Germans herded all inhabitants before them from village to village. When the final movement came for the Germans to leave they sacked the houses. The soldiers carried off everything eatable and burned the villages before the eyes of the refugees. Then they departed, leaving the villagers homeless and foodless.

"A few hours later, when the Germans believed the French troops had arrived, they began shelling the villages they had pillaged and left, despite their knowledge of thousands of innocent civil inhabitants still there. Seven thousand women and children suffered this experience at Chauny alone. The village was under bombardment at the moment I arrived. The French Red Cross crews, with their litters, who had pushed forward afoot, were carrying off women and children wounded during the shell fire.

"The German retreat has been marked by insensate destruction. Aside from

the burning of farms and villages, the blowing up of church doors and altars and the like, the wanton destruction was carried to such an extent that I walked through twenty miles of farms and fields where every orchard tree had either been hewn down or—if the French arrived before this job of destruction could be completed—the trees were sufficiently hacked to insure their death.

"The Germans stripped every village of all metal. They tore tin gutters and plumbing from all houses, took off the metal roofs; pilfered the churches of clocks and bells. Not one escaped—from the cathedral at Noyon to the humblest of wayside churches.

"At Noyon, owing to the concentration of 10,000 women and children, the Germans promised to leave the American commission sufficient supplies to feed the refugees. Nevertheless, departing patrols sacked the American commission storehouses, carrying off all eatables. Then they dynamited the building and finally diverted water from the canal into the village. Part of the city was flooded and ruined in this fashion. The population of Noyon said they had not eaten a scrap of meat in eighteen months."

Took Away Many Captives

In leaving the evacuated territory the Germans carried with them all the able-bodied men and boys above 16 years, and all women and girls older than 15 years who were able to work. A French official communication mentions the taking of fifty women and girls from Noyon. On Feb. 17 they had removed 423 from Nesle. While taking away the fit population throughout the evacuated region, the invaders sent back hundreds of the aged and infirm from St. Quentin and other towns behind their new lines.

"Many of these French boys and old men," says an Associated Press correspondent, "had been compelled to work in the German trenches, where they said they also met many Belgians and Russians, the latter, of course, being prisoners of war. It was asserted that one of the reasons for the wholesale deportation of Belgians was the necessity for

this labor in constructing the new positions to which the Germans have fallen back. The Germans wished to spare the soldiers from this work and so employed these unwilling civilians and prisoners."

Village Priest's Narrative

In the ruined village of Voyennes, not far from the now demolished Fortress of Ham, a priest told of the spiritual agonies through which his people had passed, culminating in the sacking of their homes by the departing enemy.

"We could get no news for months except lies," he said. "We knew nothing of what was happening. Starvation crept closer upon us. We were surrounded by the fires of hell for fifty hours at a time. The roar of guns swept around us week after week, and month after month, and the sky blazed around us. We were afraid of the temper of the German officers.

"After the defeat on the Marne and after the battles of the Somme Germany was like a wounded tiger, fierce, desperate, cruel. Secretly, although our people kept brave faces, they feared what would happen if the Germans were forced to retreat. At last that happened, and after all we had endured the day of terror was hard to bear.

"From all the villages around, one by one, the people were driven out, the young women and men as old as 60 were taken away to work for Germany, and the orderly destruction began which ended with the cutting down of our little orchards and ruin everywhere.

"The commandant before that was a good man and a gentleman, afraid of God and his conscience. He said: 'I do not approve of these things; the world will have a right to call us barbarians.' He asked for forgiveness because he had to obey orders, and I gave it to him.

"An order came to take away all the bells of churches and all metal work. I had already put my church bells in the loft, and I showed them to him and said, 'There they are.' He was very sorry. This man was the only good German officer I have met, and it was because he had been fifteen years in America, and had married an American wife and es-

caped from the spell of his country's philosophy. Then he went away.

"Last Sunday a week ago, at this very house, when our people all were in their houses under strict orders and already the country was on fire with burning villages, a group of soldiers came outside there with cans of petroleum, which they put into the church. Then they set fire to it and watched my church burn in a great bonfire. That night the Germans went away through Voyennes, and early in the morning, up in my attic, looking through a pair of glasses, I saw four horsemen ride in. They were English soldiers, and our people rushed out to them. Our agony had ended."

Ambassador Sharp's Report

The full extent of this German ruthlessness was confirmed by Ambassador Sharp in a report made to the Washington Government after a journey of 100 miles through the devastated territory. The State Department made public the following summary of the document:

"A telegram from the American Ambassador at Paris, dated April 1, states that upon the invitation of the French Government he visited on March 31 many of the French towns recently retaken in the invaded territory. He was accompanied by one of the Military Attachés to the embassy. He found that the various reports circulated in France, which have appeared in American newspapers, in regard to the deplorable condition were in no way exaggerated.

"In the larger towns of Roye, Ham, and particularly in the attractive and thriving town of Chauny, destruction was complete. In many of the other smaller villages scarcely a house remains with roof intact. Throughout the reconquered territory there reigns a scene of desolation, and this is not only true where German military operations might possibly excuse destruction in the blow-

ing up of bridges, telegraphic and telephonic connections, railway lines, and the blocking of highways by felling trees which protected the German retreat, but towns were totally destroyed for no apparent military reasons.

"Fruit trees had either been cut down or exploded so as to ruin them completely; private houses along the country highway, including some of the most beautiful châteaux of great value, were completely gutted by explosives systematically planted or by fire. Blackened walls of what must have been manufacturing plants were to be seen in many towns, the salvage of which would scarcely pay for their removal. Agricultural implements in farms were destroyed, churches and cathedrals were reduced to a mass of ruins by fire or by explosives.

"At the town of Ham the mother of six children told him that her husband and two daughters, one 18 and the other 15 years of age, had been carried away by the Germans at the time of the evacuation. Upon remonstrating she had been told that as an alternative she might find their bodies in the canal in the rear of her house. She stated that out of the town's total population several hundred people had been compelled to accompany the Germans, nearly half of whom were girls and women over 15 years of age. A large number of French people, it is believed, in the evacuated towns and surrounding country were compelled to go with the Germans from the fact that few are now to be found there.

"He inspected on the trip more than 100 miles in the invaded territory and left with the conviction that never before in the history of the world had there been such a thorough destruction wrought by either a vanquished or victorious army."

[Continued on next page]



Germany's Defense of Destructive Policy

A HIGH German military authority at Berlin explained in a press interview on March 20 that the retirement to new lines was a strategic move to spoil the Allies' Winter preparations for a great Spring drive, and that the laying waste of the abandoned territory was a military measure.

"I regret exceedingly," he said, "that this move is forcing a great destruction of a beautiful part of France. Yet the destruction is not so great as the devastation inflicted by the British and the French on the Somme battlefield, and when the Entente refused our peace proposal it took the responsibility of this destruction upon itself. It is a war measure. We are compelled to take it to carry out a military plan to meet the big offensive the Entente had planned. We have destroyed nothing except out of military necessity. We have saved everything we could. We did not wish to destroy homes or other structures which offered no military advantage to the enemy, but we had to make a battlefield out of the territory we were giving up, for in it fighting will now take place, and we could leave nothing in the hands of the enemy. So we were forced to destroy roads, railroads, wells, buildings of value for military purposes, depots, even whole cities. It has been hard, too, for the French population, but that is the fault of their Government. All the men of military age we took back with us. The remainder we have turned over to their countrymen, and they are now in French hands.

"I know we will be accused again of barbarism, but we are fighting for our existence. We were compelled by the refusal of the Entente to make peace to defend ourselves against their promised offensive. We have done everything we could to avoid needless suffering, but what happens is their fault, not ours."

Allied Preparations Foiled

On the same day the Berlin *Lokal-Anzeiger*'s correspondent at the west front wrote a semi-official account treating the whole subject more fully in the same key.

"To their hunger war," he wrote, "the Entente forces intended to add a new offensive of which the hell of Verdun and the bloody horror of the Somme were to be only foretastes. Once more they wanted to try it; they felt it must succeed. Therefore they armed themselves anew. They set up new divisions after divisions, new batteries after batteries; heaped up ammunition on ammunition all Winter. America and Japan kept sending over their iron-freighted giant ships. Our foes gathered together all possible war material for their colossal army. They had the whole world in its service to be strong for the decisive struggle.

"Our enemies did more. For months past they had built and built. A thick network of railroads and roads was constructed from deep in their country to their positions. At one word of command fresh material from the depots in the hinterland and fresh masses of troops could pour through a thousand arteries to the fire front. And they supplemented these lines of approach by a system of tracks paralleling their lines.

"The idea was to give their front an almost unlimited inner mobility. For example, the troop masses that yesterday stood on the English left wing were to be able suddenly to appear today in the centre or south of the Somme and be thrown into battle there to our consternation. A network of communications at their back was to make it possible for them at any time in this second Somme battle, which was finally to break our wall in the Spring, to rapidly shift their forces and with completely surprising power to change the point of attack according to the conditions of battle. And not only the troops but artillery ammunition depots and war material depots were through this system of railways to receive unprecedented mobility.

"The working strength of millions of men in France, England, and overseas has for months had only one creative goal—to build the foundation for the crushing blow—and the thought that the enemy might be able to avert this fate

probably never occurred to them. The German highest leadership, which had no intention of leaving the initiative to the foe, thought otherwise, however.

"The aim of our leadership was to create a wholly new situation and thereby be spared the colossal bloodshed which an offensive against the enemy's Somme positions would have entailed. Our leadership found the way to render null and void all the preparations of our enemies, and which in front of the new rearward positions at the same time gave us a free, wide-open battleground.

"Our retreat from the old positions on the Ancre and the Somme has frustrated the whole of the planned great French and English Spring offensive against our centre. The enemy, advancing behind us, finds a zone which has been prepared by us as a battle glacis in front of our new positions.

"A Kingdom of Death"

"Every German who knows the character and sensibilities of our highest leaders knows that it was no easy decision for them to make the terrain, which for two and a half years we had carefully spared, now ruthlessly serviceable for military purposes. But here there were greater things at stake than considerations for part of a country which had refused us peace. Here the guiding principle for our military decisions could only be that which would bring us the greatest advantages, and for the enemy the most frightful disadvantage.

"Therefore, in the course of the last month great strips of France were converted by us into a dead land, which, ten, twelve to fifteen kilometers broad, stretches in front of the whole length of

our new positions and offers a ghastly wall of emptiness for every enemy who designs to get at them. No village, no hamlet, remains standing in this glacis—no street remains traversable; no bridge, no railway tracks, no railroad embankment, remains. Where once were woods, only stumps are left. The wells have been blown up; wires and cables destroyed. Like a vast band, a kingdom of death stretches before our new positions. And this is the terrain over which the enemy must now attack us.

"No cellar that might serve his troops for shelter remains from which he might build. All our own material was long ago removed, and all local sources from which they might be obtained have been annihilated. The giant trees lining the chaussées have been felled and lie across the roads, and the meadows were plowed up in the early rain; cannon that would attempt to pass here would be swallowed up.

"To be sure, this had to entail hardship for the once beautiful country and for its inhabitants. The men who are leading us through the last phase of the war to victory have done everything humanly possible to soften the lot of the inhabitants. Many of them, including all men and youths capable of working, were sent to the rear, for no man capable of carrying arms was to be allowed to swell the line of enemy forces.

"On the other hand, such women, children, and old men as desired to return to France were brought to a number of villages, including Noyon and Roye, lying beyond the devastated area, and which were spared by us as much as possible."

An Eyewitness in Devastated France

By Wythe Williams

War Correspondent of The New York Times

One of the most vivid and moving accounts of the German retreat in France was Mr. Williams's special cable dispatch to THE NEW YORK TIMES on March 27, 1917, the historical portions of which are here presented.

WHEN entering the reconquered territory, setting forth from Compiègne early in the morning, my first impression was of the enormous

strength of the positions the Germans had evacuated. It was my first sight of German trenches that had not suffered from shell fire, and to compare them

with the French lines was most interesting. There was a definite space of shell-marked cleavage between the former French lines and the first German outposts. After that came the German first-line trench and a marvelous system of communicating trenches back to their second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, to the twentieth line of formidable defense, known as the Hindenburg line.

Their main lines were of solid concrete. I would have sworn they were impregnable had I not such vivid proof of what happened to similar German trenches on the Somme after the battering of French artillery. Their communication trenches were a marvel of ingenuity—line after line of them running across the main lines and so connected that reinforcements or supplies could be rushed from half a dozen places to almost every main position. Between this and between every defensive trench line there is nothing but one unbroken mass of barbed wire. As far as the eye could see for a distance of miles after I entered what was German territory until a week ago there was one unending vista of rusted wire entanglements. There was something psychological about it. On the French side there are also complete systems of defensive lines that stretch all the way back to Paris, but they are not so visible—there are great open stretches of country between. On the German side it seemed that everything they did was to perfect a defense; that they realized a long time ago that an offensive on that front was impossible, and that against a French offensive they could only prepare to go back yard by yard as best they could.

Barbed Wire Ten Miles Deep

For a distance of probably ten miles this barrier of barbed wire extends in solid formation. Then come stretches of free country to where probably the tenth or eleventh defense line appears, and so on. It is behind this main area of entanglements that the systematic devastation begins. Leading directly back from what was the French front, the Germans only committed such destruction as any retiring army might do to keep off rearguard

attacks. Every road was blown to pieces—now, however, all filled and planked—every telegraph pole prone on the ground, and every rod of railway destroyed.

Beyond all this, however, lies Germany's everlasting shame and disgrace. Acts that had not the slightest military value were committed on every hand. The whole country lies waste and desolate beyond description, and not a German living today or in years to come can ever be clever or brilliant or logical or false enough to tell the reason why and have the world believe him. Ten thousand inhabitants of the country who were left behind are living witnesses that they existed these past years in a bondage worse than galley slaves. And if the testimony is not enough, let the German placards upon the remaining dead walls of these corpses of cities bear them out:

That every person above the age of twelve should always salute officers by politely removing their hats and bowing as they passed or suffer the penalty of imprisonment.

That they should live how and where their masters pleased, that their women should cook for them and wait upon them and serve them in any way desired.

That they might only walk certain streets at certain hours.

That they were forbidden to possess either money or food except at the German will.

The penalty in all these cases was death.

Lived Only by Outside Aid

I asked the same question a dozen times throughout the trip, how the civil population managed to live at all. Every time I received the same answer, which was:

"We would have starved except for the food sent by the American Relief Committee."

In reply to a question concerning the kinds of food received, I was shown empty tins that had contained American crackers and canned goods. When I asked what sort of meat, I received the invariable response:

"The Americans sent lots of things, but everything like that the Germans took for themselves."

This naturally led to questions concerning how the German soldiery fared,

and the unanimous response was that neither officers nor men fed any too well; that the pinch of hunger now afflicting the entire empire has fastened itself as well on the army.

As we approached the ruined villages * * * we saw what ghastly hand had been at work. The solid brick and stone walls of the houses were only shells concealing charred ruins. Not only one village is like that, nor a dozen, but every single one of the hundreds that have been liberated has been put to fire and sword, old men, old women, cripples, and children left to await the arrival of their own soldiery to care for them; their able-bodied men taken into bondage months ago, their young women and girls herded along with the retreating army to a slavery no one dares to think about without seeing red. And at every village the same message was left behind for the French soldiers when they arrived. Translated, it reads like this:

"You see what we have done here. Well, this is what is going to happen all the way back to the French frontier."

Is it any wonder that the French soldier telling me this said between clenched teeth:

"There is only one answer to that, my friend. Let them get down on their knees and pray when the French Army crosses the Rhine. We will be taking no prisoners on that day."

The Countryside Devastated

The aspect of the villages is sad enough, but the countryside is worse. I have seen so much of artillery destruction during this war that I confess I have been rather sated with ruins. A destroyed church, a house ripped clean to its foundations, is only another example of what I have seen dozens of times before. But a countryside that has so little left of it as that one I passed through is a sight that made me want to cry and fight at the same time. It has already been reported how orchards have been destroyed. I rather expected that this had happened just along the roads by which the army retreated. But with field glasses I could see far in on either side of every road for miles and miles; every

farm is burned, fields destroyed, every garden and every bush uprooted, every tree sawed off close to the bottom. It was a terrible sight, and seemed almost worse than the destruction of men. Those thousands of trees prone upon the earth, their branches waving in the wind, seemed undergoing death agonies before our eyes.

Everything gave its share to the blood lust of hate. Churches gave their organs for their copper, also the brass rails of their altars, even crucifixes upon ruined walls were stripped down and torn asunder.

We passed through the remnant of a place called Porquéricourt. An old woman came to a broken doorway. We stopped to talk with her. She smiled at sight of the French uniforms of our officers. She lived on a farm a mile away. The Germans had passed in the night and burned it so that she had come to Porquéricourt to hide in the cellar of a friend. Her husband and brother, both old men, had been killed by the Germans during the retreat, her two sons led off to slavery the year before. One of them had come back, but had been seized again only a few weeks before.

Her three daughters had been with her at the farm the night that the Germans retreated. They had fled with her to the house of her friend, from where they saw their own home of a lifetime in flames. The girls were 19, 21, and 24 years old. The Germans had found them in Porquéricourt and had taken them away. That was eight days before. She had heard nothing of them since. All other young women had likewise vanished that night when the Germans went away.

She told her story simply in a low, unfaltering voice. But she suffered as she spoke of her daughters.

Cemetery Left Intact

We left just at nightfall. On the outskirts we came upon the only thing I can now remember in all that scene on all that day which the Germans did not destroy as they fled. It was a cemetery built by themselves for their soldier dead. It was magnificently made, upon a magnificent site, overlooking a great valley. The graveyards I have seen behind the

allied lines cannot compare with it. Instead of wooden crosses and painted names and dates it contained monuments and crosses of engraved marble, done in all the heavy but splendid style of modern Teuton art. The place was organized and carried out with all the perfection of detail and display in which Germany has proved herself. The monuments bore sonorous and lofty mottoes. On one, beneath a helmeted statue in white, was the inscription that there lay a Prince of the house of Mecklenburg, who had died for his country, and on either side, likewise marble, rested all that was mortal of simple German soldiers.

I walked down another path, and before a gigantic marble block I halted in surprise. The inscription read: "Here lie French warriors," and over the next grave was the inscription: "Here rests the body of a brave Frenchman." I asked myself what was I to think of these people who should show such respect to French dead and place them in the same place as their own. I knew the French did that in their graveyards, but here I was in a German graveyard, and I had been hating Germans all day. I had failed to find anything about them that was good or could be admired, but here in this graveyard, perhaps, after all I had found some of that spirit of Heine, Goethe, and Schiller.

I voiced my thought to a French Lieutenant who accompanied me. We were

standing by a large monument in the centre of the graveyard. It was a noble figure of a woman in a long robe. In one hand she carried a tablet, and from the other stretched out a wreath. I read the inscription on the tablet: "Friend and enemy in death united."

Silently we walked out of the place and stood in the road. A long line of motor camions was passing. I looked into the rear ends as they lumbered along. From them the faces of old women, crippled old men, and children peered out at us, all looking white and frightened in the dark. A miserable pile of bedding and a hamper of broken crockery and kitchen-ware was strapped outside one of them. From another dangled an old and broken baby buggy. Inside I could see a mother with her child at her breast. My companion said:

"They are inhabitants who can no longer remain; their homes are gone. We cannot feed them there; we are sending them to Paris."

He laughed bitterly and pointed back to the statue that loomed white through the darkness. He repeated the inscription on the tablet:

"Friend and enemy in death united." He said: "They had the nerve to put that up in France—but it's quite true."

I understood and I believed him. In death the Frenchman and the German may be united, but that is the only way it is ever likely to happen.

Military Results of Germany's Move

GENERAL VON HINDENBURG was present in person behind the old front in France as late as March 10 and arranged the details for the withdrawal to the new line of fortified defenses, which had been in preparation for months. The orders for devastation of the abandoned territory came through him. Judged purely from the viewpoint of military strategy, what are the advantages of the new situation for Germany?

The plans and preliminary stages of the retirement were successfully con-

cealed from the Allies for days and weeks, so that all the heavy guns were removed safely to their new positions and all the main bodies of troops and their supplies were out of danger when the move became known. The Germans, however, miscalculated as to the speed with which the enemy would be able to pursue the rearguards. The fact that they left five days' food with some of the inhabitants seems to give a measure of the time they had allowed for the arrival of French or British troops through the chaos they had cre-

ated. As a matter of fact the French, especially, performed marvels of swift engineering work, throwing temporary bridges over streams, building pathways around deep craters at crossroads, and deflecting their march through fields where necessary, almost with the speed of an ordinary march. Time after time they came upon the heels of the German rearguards before they were expected. Thus the military purpose of the desolation was a failure.

What the Germans Abandoned

All those who have looked upon the impregnable positions abandoned by the Germans, especially at Péronne, with Mont St. Quentin on its flank, agree that no new line can equal it in strength. Only dire necessity could have caused the evacuation of the vast barbed wire fortifications and marsh protection at that point. A British correspondent thus describes the abandoned defenses:

"Everywhere outside Bapaume and Péronne and Chaulnes and all those deserted places near the front lines one ugly thing stares one in the face—German barbed wire. It is heavier and stronger stuff than the British or French wire, with great crosspieces of iron. They used amazing quantities of it in great wide belts in the three lines of defense before these trench systems and in all sorts of odd places, by bridges and roads and villages, even far behind the trenches, to prevent any sudden rush of hostile infantry or to tear British cavalry to pieces should they break their lines and get through.

"The German trenches are deeply dug, and along the whole line from which they have now retreated they are provided with great concreted and timbered dug-outs leading into an elaborate system of tunneled galleries, perfectly proof from shell fire, and similar to those which I

described often enough in the Somme battlefields. But in addition to these trench systems, they made behind their lines a series of strong posts, cunningly concealed and commanding a wide field of fire, with dominating observation over the British side of the country."

The Hindenburg Line

A high military official at Berlin explained on March 20 that the new positions which the German Army was taking up were built with the aid of every possible device developed in two and a half years of trench warfare.

"The old positions," he said, "were the result of the breaking off of the unfinished offensive toward Paris. Many portions of our positions were held only with the greatest difficulty. The trenches were difficult to maintain and the artillery observation points, so important in this kind of warfare, were few. The new positions are laid out in the best possible locations, with the finest observation points and deep concrete shelters for the battery positions. While the enemy is coming up to them he will be in the greatest possible difficulties himself in the devastated battlefield."

To this a British correspondent, who has talked with German prisoners, replies that the people may be deceived by such statements, but not the German soldiers at the front. "They know they have left the strongest positions ever made in warfare by years of labor, and already the fictitious strength of the famous 'Hindenburg line,' called by the Germans themselves the 'Siegfried line,' has been exposed in its reality to the men who have to hold it."

The new German line has already been pierced at several points by both the British and French Armies in the first month of its fiery ordeal.



French Heroes of the Air

Daring Deeds at the Front

Victor Forbin recently contributed to *Les Annales de Paris* this romantic yet authentic sketch of the deeds of French military aviators
[Translated for CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE]

Mastery of the air over the trench lines in France is as necessary for victory as the capture of territory. During the months of the Somme battle the Allies succeeded in gaining almost complete control of the air, and their artillery fire was correspondingly successful, while that of the Germans was blinded. The Germans, however, reported the destruction of 1,002 enemy aircraft between the beginning of the war and Jan. 1, 1917. French military records show that 417 German machines were shot down in the year 1916, besides twenty-nine captive balloons. All figures aside, the fact remains that the Allies have long held a large degree of aerial supremacy, and in the opening days of the new Spring offensive, when their whole air fleet was mobilized to photograph the German positions, they came off with 1,700 photographs. It was a victory, even though it cost from a dozen to a score of airplanes and their brave crews every day until the task was accomplished. The article here presented gives an idea of the perilous nature of the task of these men.

THIS hasty sketch will deal only with the aviators who have won the honor of personal mention in the War Office bulletins. It would be impossible to speak of all our

of those aviators who have shot down a minimum of five enemy machines—airplanes, dirigibles, or captive balloons, [which the Germans call Drachen and the French sausages.] In the ranks of our “fifth arm” these laureates form a clearly defined group—they are called the “Aces of the War Office bulletins.”

Philologists will be grateful to us for noting that this expressive word had been adopted by the sporting argot even before the war. In the boat-racing world the word “ace” was applied to oarsmen who pulled single shells. According to our esteemed contemporary, *Sporting*, it was during the Olympic games of 1908, held in London, that the term was applied for the first time in its present sense. M. Spitzer, who took part in these tournaments as trainer of a team, heard French runners cry, as they left the field where the American champions had just stupefied them with their swiftness, “Why, they’re all aces!”

The team that counted such trumps among its cards was bound to win. And the word found favor. In all sports the champions became “aces.”

It is indispensable to note that the official communiqué takes account only of enemy machines whose destruction is beyond question, whether they fall within our lines or have been seen to fall in flames within the enemy’s lines. Our score sheets, therefore, are sincere, while



LIEUTENANT GUYNEMER
WHO HAS SHOT DOWN MORE THAN THIRTY
GERMAN AIRCRAFT
(© International Film Service)

heroes of the air, both because they are too numerous and because the censor would forbid our printing most of their names. It should be remembered that the press is allowed to print only the names

those of Germany are erroneous. To illustrate this difference we will compare the record of our "Prince of aces," Lieutenant George Guynemer, with that of the most brilliant of the German aviators, Captain Boelcke, who was killed on Oct. 28, 1916, probably by a French or British aviator, although his compatriots, who had dubbed him "The Invincible," assert that he was the victim of an accident.

The communiqué credits Guynemer (in February, 1917) with the destruction of only thirty machines, though he has certainly shot down thirty-four, of which four fell so far from our lines that it was impossible to get material proof of their destruction. If it were permissible to add to these figures those of enemy machines which he put to flight after having visibly damaged them, the record of Guynemer would exceed forty.

Rival Records Compared

Boelcke is officially credited with forty machines, but the editor of *La Guerre Aérienne*, Jacques Mortane, has revealed several gross errors in the record of the celebrated aviator. For example, the German official communication of April 30, 1916, gives him his fortieth machine, whereas the pilot who steered it—the marshal of the camp, Viallet—returned safe and sound to his aerodrome. On March 19 and 20 of that year the German War Office bulletins credited Boelcke with three machines, designating the points in the French lines where they fell. Now, a French communiqué states clearly that in the course of that same month of March only one French airplane was shot down within our lines. Another fact must not be forgotten: Among the forty victories attributed officially to Boelcke eleven have not been mentioned in any bulletin. They are therefore open to suspicion.

At the moment of writing this article the "Aces of the War Office bulletins" number twenty-five, a figure which the coming days will modify, for there are numerous aviators with four victories to their credit who are watching impatiently for their fifth machine, a certificate

of public fame. Here is the list of the laureates up to Feb. 5, 1917:

Second Lieutenant Guynemer, 30 machines; Second Lieutenant Nungesser, 21; Lieutenant Heurteaux, 19; Adjutant Dorme, 17; Second Lieutenant Navarre, 12; Lieutenant Deullin, 10; Sergeant Chainat, 9; Second Lieutenants Chaput, Tarascon, Under Officer Sauvage, 8; Under Officer Viallet, 7; de la Tour, Lufbery, Sayaret, Flachaire, Jailler, Loste, de Bonnefoy, Bloch, Vitalis, Martin, Delorme, Gastin, Hauss, Madon, 5.

This list includes only the "aces" who are living and in active service. We will complete it with the names of Adjutant Maxime Lenoir, who was made prisoner when he shot down his eleventh machine; Second Lieutenant de Rochefort, who died of wounds after bringing down his sixth enemy; the deeply mourned Pégoud, who died on the field of honor after his sixth airplane; and Second Lieutenant Gilbert, who had scored five aerial victories when he was interned in Switzerland.

A comparison of this list with that of the German "aces" leads to some interesting observations. For example, one of the Germans, Kandulski, received the honor of mention by the War Office for one isolated victory. True, it was one of importance; the victim was Pégoud, whom Sergeant Ronserail avenged a few days later by bringing down Kandulski. Of the sixteen German aviators cited in the Berlin bulletins nine were killed in the year 1916, while the French phalanx lost only three units in that year.

Laureates of the Air

Space is lacking here to sketch the biographies of our francs-tireurs of the air, but a few lines may be given to note their status before the war. Of the twenty-five names on the list just given, the great majority were unknown, even in the sporting world, during the first ten months of the war. A few exceptions may be cited from memory: Second Lieutenant Jean Chaput had distinguished himself in the races of the Racing Club of France; Camp Marshal

Vitalis was a champion in pigeon-shoot contests; Second Lieutenant Nungesser had participated in boxing matches in America, after having taken lessons of Descamps, the instructor of Carpenter.

Sporting men are numerous in the phalanx of "aces." To the three names just mentioned we may add those of Adjutant Bloch, amateur football player; Sergeant Chainat, noted as a pugilist, and Adjutant Lufbery, an American expert in baseball, the national sport of his country.

All the arms—infantry, cavalry, artillery—have representatives on our list, and men of the most diverse social classes fraternize there—professional army officers, civil engineers, mechanicians. The standing of those laureates of the air is dazzling; they have heroism and glory by the armful. Let us glance, to begin with, at the laurels of the "ace of aces," Guynemer, whom the councils of revision had removed from the army, and who had to ask five separate times for admission into the aviation corps—and was admitted then only through official protection. To baptize his stripes as a Corporal he shot down his first German airplane on July 19, 1915, destroyed two others in the next six days, and then in a single battle sent three enemy machines crashing to earth!

Guynemer has to his credit whole series of deeds that are epoch-making. In three weeks—from the 4th to the 23d of September, 1916—he added to his score seven machines, four of which figured in the official announcements. Indeed, Sept. 23 was a red-letter day in his eventful life, for on that day he attacked a squadron of enemy aircraft, drove one machine to earth, and set two others on fire in less than three minutes. Then a bursting shell damaged his machine, and he took a slide of 10,000 feet without receiving a scratch!

Two months later he added two fine double feats to his score. On Nov. 10 he shot down two aircraft; on the 23d, in an hour and a half, he found time to destroy two others at different points on the front, and to inflict serious damage upon a third.

Nungesser's Dramatic Record

The career of Nungesser is no less remarkable. Serving in a regiment of hussars, he conducted himself so valiantly that he won the Military Medal two weeks after the opening of the campaign. Then he entered the aviation corps and took part in numerous bombing expeditions. Finally he specialized in the pursuit of enemy machines, and on Nov. 28, 1915, made a brilliant début by bringing down a German airplane. The next month, while trying a new machine, he came crashing to the ground; with a fractured leg, a broken jaw, and a hole in his palate, he could say good-bye to aviation, if he survived at all. But he did survive, refused to be laid on the shelf, and begged to be allowed to take part in the defense of Verdun. He could no longer walk, except painfully, with the aid of canes. Now mark the intrepid work of the cripple! Think of his achievements in April, 1916. What a fine lesson in energy and endurance!

On April 1 Nungesser rejoined his squadron; on the 2d he burned a German "sausage"; on the 3d he attacked and brought down an airplane; on the 4th he attacked and shot down a double-motor machine with four passengers; on the 25th he brought down a machine that fell on the trenches near Verdun; on the 27th he accepted battle with six airplanes, shot down one of them, and put the others to flight.

In nine months—from April to December, 1916—he destroyed twenty enemy aircraft, which brought his total score of victories to twenty-one.

One of the most brilliant careers in the world of military aviation is that of Adjutant Dorme, whose comrades call him the Unbreakable, so impervious does he seem to the enemy's bullets. He began, however, with a fall that almost cost him his life. But he recovered and arrived at the front on July 6, 1916. On the 9th he shot down his first airplane, and his second on the 28th. In the following month he destroyed six and received the honors of public mention. By the end of Septem-

ber his official score had reached ten, and in October thirteen. But in reality he had, in those four months, put twenty-six enemy aircraft out of action.

Sub-Lieutenant Navarre, with his four aircraft brought down in eight hours, (April 4, 1916,) established a record which no one has thus far taken away from him. During that same month of April his record was increased by eight more official victories.

Chaput's Amazing Escape

Another record, less brilliant, perhaps, but certainly more sensational, and at the same time more scientific, belongs to Second Lieutenant Jean Chaput. As an engineer in the Ecole Supérieure d'Electricité, Chaput had just won his brevet as pilot at Nieuport when the war broke out. Thrown into aviation as a soldier-pilot, he was twice wounded in combats with the dreaded Fokkers, but soon got his revenge by shooting down his first Boche in June, 1915. Other victories succeeded this beginning. On March 18, 1916, above Montzéville, he joined battle with a machine much better armed and more powerful than his own. Suddenly, after an exchange of shots, the German dashed down upon him in order to crush him.

We learn from a friend of the aviator that a few days earlier, in talking with comrades, he had foreseen the case in which he might be forced to approach an enemy in order to "get inside of him," as the familiar phrase has it. He had declared that he would escape alive from such a dangerous approach. He had his plan. This plan, elaborated by the engineer, was put into practice by the aviator.

Putting his motor at full speed, Chaput threw himself into the meeting with the German, and then, at the moment of approach, moved his levers and manoeuvred his machine in such a manner that his screw tore into the enemy's fuselage, cutting off the rear end. The German pilot fell whirling with his machine, which burst into flame, while his passenger went crashing into the ground nearly two miles below. The conqueror got back to earth by volplaning on his

seriously damaged machine, and landed without injury, amid the cheers of hundreds of poilus who had witnessed his dazzling achievement.

The next month Chaput was attacked by a Fokker and brought it down with the fourth ball from his machine gun, whose bands jammed at that point. He burned a "sausage" at Douaumont, and then, in the space of five days, added four airplanes (two in the same day) to his score. He had just finished off his ninth official machine when a fight near Verdun almost put an end to his career. With his thigh fractured and a bullet through his shoulder, he yet had the superhuman courage to fly more than twenty-five miles in order to alight near an ambulance, where he knew he would find a skilled surgeon.

This sang froid, remarkable in a young man of 22 years grievously wounded, had its reward; a very rapid recovery soon enabled him to see the day when he could again fall upon the Boches.

Another Stirring Episode

We are sorry not to be able to give a few lines to each of our "aces"—to Adjutant Tarascon who, in spite of his artificial foot, has become one of the most dreaded chasers of the Boches; to Sergeant Sauvage, whose nineteen years have won him the sobriquet of the "Benjamin of the Aces"; to Adjutant Lufbery, the former chauffeur and American citizen who has carved a place for himself among the "aces" of France. But we may be allowed to close this too long article with a final anecdote.

A marshal of the aviation camp, Georges Flachaire, an electric engineer like Jean Chaput, is one of the most recent recruits to the glorious phalanx—his sixth enemy machine dates from Nov. 23 last. His comrades consider him a fine pilot. With Chaput he represents the scientific type of aviator.

Defying bad weather one day he departed on the chase, hiding himself in a sea of clouds to foil the vigilant scouts of the enemy, and emerged after an hour of flight to inspect the horizon. * * * (Censored) * * * When he came out

of it he perceived a peaceful village, and, convinced that he was over our lines, chose a meadow for his landing place. Maledictions! He discovers suddenly that he is in a cantonment of German artillery. Amid a volley of musketry he resumes his flight, foils the German gunners by executing those unforeseen pirouettes that are familiar to the scientific acrobat, takes refuge in the clouds amid a storm of shrapnel shells, and, after a flight by compass, rejoins his squadron.

Told by a French Artist

Henry Farré, the French "painter of aviators," in addition to making wonderful pictures of battles in the clouds, can tell good stories in connection with them. *Les Annales* prints the following account of a night bombardment, which M. Farré gathered from the heroes themselves, "Sergeant G. and Lieutenant de L." who accomplished this perilous circuit. He puts the narrative into the mouth of the Lieutenant:

"Once outside the environs of Verdun, the departure was made in a normal way. The objective of our bombardment was at a considerable distance behind the lines. Ceaseless attacks were transforming the ground into one vast brazier. Verdun was burning. The smoke obscured the sky with great clouds, amid which the moon seemed to be playing hide-and-seek, too often hiding from our view the meanderings of the Meuse, which served as our guide. Nothing was lacking for our reception; everything was offered us in profusion—searchlights, shells, and incendiary bombs.

"In the midst of this cannonade our motor stops, then goes on, then stops again, and goes on more freely. I peer, I grope, for we dare not think of lighting our lamps, and it is impossible to learn what is the matter with the motor. The pilot turns and questions me. 'Ah, worse luck!' I shout; 'we must throw our bombs first, and then we'll turn back.' The machine was sinking with the diminishing speed of the motor. 'Certainly,' I was saying to myself, without thinking of the danger, 'the

bombardment will be all the more effective at close range.'

"We were at an elevation of 800 meters; the shells were bursting far above us, and the searchlights were seeking us still higher up. At last our bombs fall and we veer for the homeward course. Oh, anguish! Is the motor going to fail us completely? No; it is going again. We are thirty miles from Verdun; at this altitude we could never get there by planing. The pilot makes desperate efforts to keep the machine horizontal and thus prolong the descent.

"A ray of hope! The motor seems to have more force. I consult the altimeter; we are at 1,000 meters. Around us the shells accompany us, but we pay no attention to them, for we prefer anything rather than K. K. bread in a German prison. We are ascending a little. God be praised! We shall arrive, we are up 1,200 meters; but it is the maximum. I am beginning to wear out; my efforts are less and less effective; we are descending again.

"Verdun, which we see always in flames, is still far distant. We fall swiftly to 800 meters, then 600. We are doomed—it is K. K. bread this time without a doubt—we are right over the Boche lines—we distinctly hear the tac-tac of the machine guns and the irregular reports of the rifles. Shall we reach our lines? The altimeter shows 400. Verdun is now about three miles away.

"'Courage!' I cry to the pilot. 'We can get back; in any event, if we die, it will be among our own people. See—the flames of Verdun! If only we can glide as far as that!'

"We land at last, the motor, meanwhile, having stopped entirely. We have come down on the auxiliary ground, with the two front wheels dished, a few guy wires wrenched, and a few cracks in the machine. That is all the harm done, while we, in each other's arms, let the German shells fall unheeded around us.

"'We've had a mighty close view of K. K. bread,' I remark; 'come, let us telephone our friends; they must be worried.'"

PRINCE GEORGE E. LVOFF



Premier of the Russian Provisional Government, and a
Leader in the Revolution That Overthrew the Romanoffs

(Central News Service)

PROFESSOR PAUL MILUKOFF



Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Whose Speeches in
the Duma Precipitated the Revolution

(© Underwood & Underwood)

The Zeppelin Raids and Their Effect On England

By Charles Stiénon

French Author and Publicist

[By arrangement with the *Revue Bleue*, Paris; translated for *CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE*.]

ON the fast express to Spain I recently met an Englishman of rank. In the course of conversation we came to discuss the frequent Zeppelin raids on England. I asked him what effect they would have on the people of Great Britain. "Oh, excellent! They arouse such anger that the enlistments increase by leaps and bounds on the days following." Our adversaries have committed few psychological errors comparable to this one, which promises to furnish a curious problem for the historians of the great war.

It is important to note at the outset that the Zeppelins were created to wage war—and that they have not done it. The military use of the enemy dirigibles has been almost nil. In August, 1914, these airships were far from the perfection which they have since attained. One can scarcely place to their credit any real military service except the bombardment of Antwerp. Since that moment they have never accomplished a more difficult exploit nor rendered a more valuable service to the German cause. Is this owing to their vulnerable nature, and to the effective guard of swift airplanes and anti-aircraft guns on our front? Probably. The German General Staff has always seen the deception which the non-utilization of these national monsters would produce in Germany. For the people of the belligerent nations see the war only on its external side. "Tanks," 420's, trains with blind windows, will stimulate their imagination on the romantic side more than many another element with a less extraordinary outer aspect but greater real importance.

From that moment our enemies con-

ceived the idea of using their Zeppelins for a "moral" purpose—and one less dangerous. It was, however, to an airplane that the honor was given of attacking Dover on Christmas Day, 1914, a raid without success. On that occasion our allies were able to realize the manifest insufficiency of their anti-aircraft defenses. Almost everywhere they had installed special guns whose mediocrity became evident.

First Zeppelin Raid

Three weeks afterward, on Jan. 19, 1915, Zeppelins for the first time flew over the soil of the British Isles. At Yarmouth they threw nine bombs, killing only nine persons. This raid, which could have no military aim, provoked a just indignation. In the United States a prominent newspaper asked whether it was "insanity or despair." At that time Germany had not yet generalized its system of terrorism. The effect in England was great. This first raid produced an immediate increase in voluntary recruiting. On Feb. 21 an airplane flew over Colchester, destroying a few houses, but without injuring anybody. At Braintree two soldiers found an unexploded bomb on the ground and, though the fuse was burning, they picked it up and threw it into a pond.

On April 14 a raid on the northeast coast, with no victims. Two days later an airplane threw bombs on the fields of Kent. It killed a crow and uprooted an apple tree. On April 30 and May 3 and 10 new incursions, absolutely ineffective. A curious fact, however, was observed. The siren sounded to warn the inhabitants actually attracted the enemy aircraft.

Meanwhile our adversaries did not con-

ceal the fact that London was their real objective, and that their operations thus far had been mere scouting expeditions. Yet the English technical services appeared not to be giving adequate attention to the city's defenses.

On May 17 a Zeppelin, after wandering leisurely over Ramsgate and Dover, was attacked by an English air squadron from Dunkerque, which succeeded in damaging it.

On May 31, 1915, at 10:23 P. M., the capital of the British Empire received its first bombs; the authorities had not even been warned. Six persons were killed in the East End. Public anger rose swiftly. Suspected German shops were demolished by the mob that gathered in the streets and committed mild depredations.

After that the Government forbade detailed accounts of the German raids. This policy of absolute secrecy, however, was an error, for the public immediately lost all confidence in the official bulletins, and believed, on the contrary, the most improbable tales. The happy and usual result of all censorships! Thus five deaths were announced one day when there were really twenty-four, a fact which was soon known and gave rise to exaggerations. In February, 1916, the press was again allowed to speak; the British censors thus gave proof of sound sense.

Fighting the Air Monsters

Meanwhile an extraordinary exploit had occurred to prove that it was possible to fight the Zeppelin. An aviator of 22 years, Second Lieut. Warneford, destroyed one of the great aircraft with six bombs on June 7, 1915. The hero received the Victoria Cross and the Legion of Honor, but was killed a few days later—on the 17th—in a stupid accident.

An attack of two airships on June 15 caused the death of fourteen persons and the wounding of thirteen. On Aug. 9, fourteen more deaths and fourteen wounded. One of these Zeppelins, which had already been damaged by shells, was destroyed near Dunkerque by an airplane attack. On Aug. 12, six dead and twenty-three wounded. The people, by coming out into the streets and gathering

in groups in public places, helped to cause these murderous results.

All accounts of these events agree in describing the English communities as very calm in the face of danger, and intensely interested. They regularly imagined that the enemy was hit by the anti-aircraft shrapnel, whose explosions in the sky produce curious optical illusions. "We must terrorize the English," say the German commentators. Yet fear is the last sentiment that our allies seem to have experienced. Recruiting was increased and more people rallied to the munition factories. Fear? "The eyes of the children whose laughter I hear in the playground as I write are the best answer to this threat." Thus wrote one witness.

The next raid, Aug. 17, killed ten persons and wounded thirty-six. From that time there began to be manifested, especially in The Times, a feeling that the Government was doing nothing against these enemy raids, and was, moreover, concealing the truth. When German airships reappeared over London on Sept. 7 and 8, the unrest became more marked. Several houses were destroyed and the guns obtained no result. The destruction and losses were important.

London Organizes Defenses

A veritable campaign was started on the spot to demand the measures indispensable to the safety of the capital. Admiral Sir Percy Scott, a retired artillerist, was intrusted with the defense; but before he could obtain results, on Oct. 13 a new raid on London killed 56 persons and wounded 113. The guns and airplanes went into action, but accomplished nothing. Of course the enemy represented these expeditions as having a purely military object and as producing great results.

British opinion then began to demand reprisals, and the attitude of the people became more clearly characteristic. The Englishman's house has always been his castle. He regarded these raids as a new sort of violation of the rights of private domicile. The people were not afraid—far from that!—for their curiosity was often the cause of

deaths; but where the French people adopted an attitude of irony and skepticism in a like situation, the English took the matter more seriously.

The enemy airships continued their attacks, the details of which need not be continued here. In the night of Jan. 31, 1916, the invaders killed 59 more people and wounded 101. It would be wearisome to prolong this harrowing enumeration; but there is proof that on the day when our allies went seriously to work on the problem they obtained incontestable advantages over the pirates of the air.

In the first months of the war several Zeppelins had been shot down with ease. But times had changed. The first, rather slow machines, flying at a low altitude, had soon been succeeded by super-Zeppelins, veritable Titans of the air, which flew at great heights. Against them the guns of small calibre were powerless, while the heavy pieces could not be used effectively save during the few moments when the dirigible descended to hurl its bombs. A special means of pursuit was needed, which could follow the Zeppelins, Parsevals, and Schütte-Lanz dirigibles at great heights, and it existed in the airplane. This invention has been developed by the war to an unhoped-for degree of perfection.

After long and sometimes mortal experiences the English aviators were ready to chase the monster—in the early Summer of 1916. Add to this the fact that a special make of incendiary fuse-bombs—we cannot say more—facilitated the work to an extraordinary degree. The anti-aircraft guns also were increased in number, and the most painstaking precautions were adopted to defeat the adversary. And they were needed to overcome these air monsters, 227 meters long, bristling with cannons and machine guns, and carrying more than fifty bombs.

From May to July the enemy refrained from further attacks, but in July and August the raids multiplied, causing serious losses. On several occasions the hostile aircraft were pursued in vain by airplanes.

Great Raid of Sept. 2

One might be tempted to see in the raid of Aug. 24, 1916, a scouting operation preliminary to the great attack of Sept. 2. On the latter night thirteen dirigibles flew over English soil, and three reached London. The city had been warned, and the whole population was on foot awaiting the new spectacle. The necessary precautions had been taken to minimize the probable losses. The sky was divided into a certain number of sectors, swept by dozens of searchlights. There was a sound of distant cannonading, bombs burst in the sky, a Zeppelin emerged from the darkness—and suddenly all the searchlights were extinguished and the guns ceased fire!

A few seconds passed, and then suddenly a formidable mass of flame illumined the heavens and was seen falling swiftly, until the colossal conflagration came crashing to earth. What had happened? At the arrival of the Zeppelin the aviators had dashed to the pursuit. One of these, Lieutenant Robinson, after rising about 2,700 meters, saw the airship. At that moment, to avoid hindering or wounding him, the guns and searchlights paused. The dirigible was emitting torrents of smoke. It rose and then descended at great speed. Lieutenant Robinson rose 680 meters higher and charged at full speed against the enemy. At the right distance he fired his fuse-bombs and destroyed the Zeppelin, which, as seen later, was of the Schütte-Lanz type. The brave aviator, 21 years old, received the Victoria Cross, the supreme honor. Only the charred bodies of Captain Wilhelm Schramm and his Zeppelin crew of fifteen men were found. A military burial was accorded them.

Thus, after two years of war, our allies succeeded in defending their soil. One can understand what fury seized Germany when she saw her beautiful air cruisers destroyed by British guns and airplanes. This failure called for vengeance, and, on Dec. 24, twelve Zeppelins came across the North Sea to hover over England. Their reception was still

hotter than before. The first machine was brought crashing to earth with its crew in Essex. Lieutenants Sowrey and Brandon, following the tactics of their friend Robinson, had shot it down. This brought them the D. S. O., (Distinguished Service Order.) The second machine was hit by the artillery and came gently to earth on the Essex coast. The crew of twenty men destroyed it and surrendered to a British constable. The ten other airships had achieved the considerable result of killing 30 persons and wounding 110, most of them in London.

Invaders Suffer Heavily

On Oct. 1 came a new attack by ten airships, one of them reaching London, and the scene of Sept. 2 was repeated. Lieutenant Tempest, now also a D. S. O., shot down his Zeppelin while the crowds sang "God Save the King." The enemy craft fell to destruction in two pieces, with its chief, Captain Mathy, one of the most noted of the German aviation officers. In an interview a short time before he had ridiculed the English aviators. These experiences cooled the German ardor somewhat in regard to air raids.

It is extremely probable that the General Staff at Berlin had no desire to continue such costly experiences. But public opinion would not have tolerated this confession of defeat. So on Nov. 27 a new raid carefully avoided London, which was too well defended, and turned its bombs and shells against the northeast coast of Great Britain. One Zeppelin was demolished in a few seconds, and another was seriously damaged while flying over the Midlands; it succeeded, however, in repairing these injuries and reaching the sea. Nine miles from the shore, overtaken by four airplanes and a gunboat that shelled it, it plunged into the waves. Lieutenants Palling, Cadbury, and Fane were rewarded for this exploit. In the course of the same day an enemy airplane succeeded in attacking London. A few hours later French aviators shot down a machine carrying two officers with large-scale maps of the British metrop-

olis. Thus was the aggressor punished. Since then the German General Staff has renounced these "reconnoissances," which it found decidedly too far from being satisfactory.

German Errors of Psychology

The psychological errors of Germany can no longer be counted. Before the war she had expected internal revolts in the Entente countries, defections that have never materialized. She did not foresee entirely the support that the colonies have given to France, nor the organization of Britain's military power, nor the efforts of the British dominions. She has sought to establish her superiority over other nations by means of certain processes, of which the least one can say is that they have totally failed. The Germans have never deceived themselves more completely than on the subject of their magnificent air fleet. They believed that in war they would enjoy entire superiority in bombarding and air scouting. Since then they have had to acknowledge that these were illusions. Still, the German people, not being able to admit that their idol, Count Zeppelin, was self-deluded, thought to utilize the "genial creations of the inventor" as instruments of moral strategy. Colonel Feyler, in an imposing study, has shown all the labors which the General Staff lavished in magnifying his successes and in presenting them in such fashion as to influence the spirit of the German people.

The Central Empires knew how firmly the English held to their independence, and how much the inviolability of their soil was a question of honor with them. Hence followed this reasoning, from which, be it noted, all humanity is absent: "We wish to strike England; we cannot do it better than by striking her homes." This logic is correct, and the exasperation of the English has answered "Touched!" to the German boot. But the Berlin General Staff had formulated a second axiom, much more debatable than the other: "When the English, who have never been invaded, shall see the enemy in their country, they will be so agitated that the moral effect will be the depres-

sion of the nation; the more so, since we risk nothing."

Here the psychological sense of Germany was faulty. The raids not only failed to produce the expected moral effect, but proved to be the lash that woke the sleeping horse.

When Englishmen saw their women, children, and old men disemboweled by German bombs, they enlisted to fight the Germans all the more angrily as they saw more clearly what their enemies were capable of doing. Besides, the final clause in the German theory also proved itself inexact, since from September to

December, 1916, five Zeppelins were shot down.

The influence of this German mistake upon British recruiting can scarcely be exaggerated. We owe the British armies in France partly to our adversaries. Thus at Charleroi Marshal French had about five divisions in August, 1914. One year later he had forty-one divisions, divided into three armies; and on Jan. 1, 1916, Marshal Sir Douglas Haig had two million men! Does Germany know how many of these soldiers took up arms because of the indignation aroused in their hearts by the Zeppelin murders?

List of Zeppelin Raids Against England

THE total number of Zeppelin raids over the British Isles since the beginning of the war, according to the best available data, is forty-one, including the belated attempt of March 16, 1917, which was apparently organized after the death of Count Zeppelin to prove that the German hopes once based upon his invention still lived. For several months the raids had been discontinued, owing to the increasing frequency with which the balloons had been destroyed in October and November.

On Aug. 22, 1916, Major Baird, representative of the Aerial Board in the House of Commons, announced that there had been thirty-four raids on England, in ten of which no casualties were suffered, while in the remainder the number of killed was 334 civilians and 50 military men. In the next three months five of the great aircraft were destroyed in England alone, two of them on Nov. 28 during the raid on the midland counties. At the end of November an authoritative list showed that a total of thirty-eight German Zeppelins had been lost on all fronts since the beginning of the war, seven of which fell in England and four in the North Sea. Then one of the raiders of March 16-17 was shot down in France. Many of the earlier ones were destroyed by allied aviators in France and by bombs dropped on Zeppelin sheds in Belgium.

The list of recorded raids on England is as follows:

1915

Jan. 19, 20—Yarmouth, Cromer, Sheringham, King's Lynn.
 April 14, 15—Blyth, Bedlington, Morpeth, Cramlington, Wallsend, Hebburn.
 April 15, 16—Maldon, Heybridge, Southwold, Lowestoft, Burnham, Yarmouth.
 April 29, 30—Ipswich, Bury St. Edmunds, Whittton.
 May 9, 10—Southend, Westcliff, Mouth of the Thames.
 May 16, 17—Ramsgate, Folkestone.
 May 31, June 1—London.
 June 4, 5—Mouth of the Humber, Harwich.
 June 6, 7—Hull, Grimsby.
 June 15, 16—Shields, Elswick-on-Tyne.
 Aug. 9, 10—London, Mouth of the Thames, Harwich, Humber.
 Aug. 12, 13—Harwich.
 Aug. 17, 18—London, Woodbridge, Ipswich.
 Sept. 7, 8—London.
 Sept. 8, 9—London, Norwich, Middlesborough.
 Sept. 11, 12—London.
 Sept. 13, 14—Southend.
 Oct. 13, 14—London and suburbs, Ipswich.

1916

Jan. 31, Feb. 1—Liverpool, Birkenhead, Manchester, Sheffield, Nottingham, Birmingham, Humber, Yarmouth.
 March 5, 6—Hull.
 March 31, April 1—London, Enfield, Waltham Abbey, Stowmarket, Lowestoft, Cambridge, Humber.
 April 1, 2—Mouth of Tees, Middlesborough, Sunderland.
 April 2, 3—London, Edinburgh, Newcastle.
 April 3, 4—Great Yarmouth.
 April 5, 8—Whitby, Hull, Leeds.
 April 24, 25—Cambridge, Norwich, Lincoln, Winterton, Ipswich, Norwich, Harwich.

April 25, 26—London, Colchester, Ramsgate.
 May 2, 3—Middlesboro, Stockton, Sunderland, Hartlepool, Mouth of Tees, Firth of Forth.
 July 28, 29—Lincoln, Grimsby, Immingham, Hull, Norwich.
 July 31, Aug. 1—London, Mouth of Thames, eastern counties.
 Aug. 2, 3—London, Harwich, Norwich, Lowestoft, Winterton.
 Aug. 8, 9—Mouth of Tyne, Sunderland, Hartlepool, Middlesborough, Whitby, Hull, Grimsby, Mouth of Humber, King's Lynn, eastern counties.
 Aug. 24—London.
 Aug. 24, 25—London, Harwich, Folkestone, Dover.
 Sept. 2, 3—London, Yarmouth, Harwich, southeastern counties, Humber.
 Sept. 23, 24—London, Humber, central counties, (Nottingham, Sheffield.)
 Sept. 25, 26—Portsmouth, fortified places at the mouth of the Thames, York, Leeds, Lincoln, Derby.
 Oct. 1, 2—London, Humber.
 Oct. 9, 10—Near London.
 Nov. 27, 28—Midland counties.

1917.

March 16, 17—Coast of Kent.

As a pendant to the foregoing article comes the following from the Bulletin des Armées:

The death of Count Zeppelin on March 8 has not diminished the blind faith of the German people in his apparatus. On March 11 the Cologne Gazette said: "We will soon prove to the English that the work of our immortal Zeppelin still

lives." This threat was carried into effect: In the night of March 16-17 an air raid was attempted on the English coast. According to the British war bulletins the enemy threw bombs on the northeast corner of the County of Kent. The explosives did no material damage.

A few hours later three Zeppelins were sighted in France, undoubtedly the same ones that had bombarded the English coast. About 4 o'clock in the morning they passed over Rouen; two of them regained the German lines. The third flew over the neighborhood of Paris and then turned north. About 5:30 it was passing over Compiègne at a height of 3,500 yards, when it was hit by a shell from our anti-aircraft batteries. It instantly burst into flame, remained a few minutes in the air, and then crashed to earth at the corner of the Rue de Paris and the Boulevard Gambetta. It struck a garden wall and broke in two.

Before falling the men had thrown out their bombs, which fell in the fields; most of them did not burst. There was no victim among the people, no damage to property where the airship fell. The crew of fifteen men had been burned to death—except a few who had thrown themselves overboard and had been killed in the fall. Once more a Zeppelin raid had ended in a bloody reverse.

Terrible Realities of War

A Gunner's Story

A British artillery officer on the Somme wrote this impressive description after traversing the scene of a successful advance:

FOUR villages on our immediate front fell—two of them after desperate and bloody fighting, the other two with comparative ease. When we first arrived there we looked on the remains of ruined villages and a field of desolation and ugliness as far as the eye could see.

On arriving at our old observation point we made our way over to the old Hun stronghold. We started our journey down our old trenches, but these, though now empty, were in a filthy condition—we had recently had a lot of rain—and as

the enemy had now no direct observation on us we left these and proceeded across the open. The ground here was completely pitted with shell holes of all sizes. Hardly a square inch of ground that had not been disturbed. One literally stepped out of one into another, (many of them filled with water from the previous night's rain.) It was here that one saw the grim realities of war—the human remains lying among the wreckage of the battlefield; khaki or gray clad forms wherever one turned one's head, some un-

mercifully torn and shattered beyond recognition, others like waxwork figures in attitudes which showed their last set purpose before they were struck down. Others might well have been only sleeping, though their mud-begrimed faces told the truth, and all that ghastly color of the rain-sodden yellow clay on which they lay.

The whole place was nauseating. The smell of powder and stench of putrefaction pervaded everything. The atmosphere was too still and heavy for those foul smells to disperse. Our troops were then well beyond the village, but the Hun gave it no rest, and shells were still dropping all about the place.

From here we made our way to the spot where some two weeks before I had seen through my glasses our men held up by machine-gun fire. Some infantry had now established themselves there, and a few men were standing by the entrance drinking tea from a dixie. The roof, which was some four or five feet thick and made of reinforced concrete, showed signs of our fire, but had been but little damaged, though all around had been broken and smashed. Four dead Germans lay just outside among the wreckage, a fifth on a stretcher was uttering most awful groans, and, though attended by our men, was beyond all human aid, and was soon to be numbered with his lifeless comrades, while a sixth sat by nursing an arm he had recently had dressed, looking a picture of abject misery, as he gazed vacantly on that fearful field in front of him.

Inside the dugout showed signs of its previous occupation. The German litter had not as yet been cleared away—an old waterproof sheet, a blanket or two, and one or two old Hun coats lay among the rubbish. Two or three officers lay curled

up in odd corners trying to get a little rest, while a few orderlies and telephonists squatted about the place among their instruments and the tangle of wires with which they are always surrounded. The men spoke in subdued tones, and a stillness pervaded the chamber, which was interrupted only by a small kitten, which wandered about playfully toying with everything that came within its reach—wires, bits of surgical dressing, and old beef tins. Having obtained what information we required here, we set out toward our new front line away in front of the village.

I have seen villages that have been smashed beyond recognition, but this one surpassed all. It was literally razed to the ground. Not a wall was left standing. It was impossible to try to locate one's position by roads and buildings. They simply didn't exist. It was one huge rubbish heap, one mass of wreckage—broken masonry and brickwork and shattered and charred timber. We made our way along a newly trodden track through the débris—it evidently followed what was once a sunken road, for the wreckage was piled up high on either side of us, affording us a little shelter from occasional shells which were being indiscriminately dropped about the place. Turning a sudden corner, we came upon a sight I shall never forget. The stench became overpowering. Along the track in front of us lay, not one, but scores of gray-clad figures. I think they must have been caught unexpectedly in our artillery barrage, but I did not stop to examine the nature of their wounds. The spectacle was too horrible. We left the sunken track at this point, and went forward across the open. Such was the state of this Hun stronghold on the day following its fall.



Amazing Effects of Shell Shock On Soldiers' Nerves

By W. R. Houston, A. M., M. D.

Professor of Clinical Medicine in the University of Georgia

Dr. Houston, an eminent neurologist, spent several months in French war hospitals studying the effects of shell shock upon the nervous systems of wounded soldiers. The results of his observations have been condensed by him into this noteworthy article.

THE beautiful City of Lyons, lying at the confluence of the Rhone and Saone, has been made the "Hospital City of France." More than thirty-five thousand sick and wounded are cared for there. A thousand of these are assigned to the Neurological Centre and housed in the handsome buildings of the Nouvelle Lycée, the new boys' college at the entrance to the park. In each of the twenty medical districts into which France is divided there is a similar hospital for men who have suffered damage to the nervous system. The Centre Neurologique at Lyons is, however, the largest of these centres, and for certain reasons the most interesting.

To the neurologist, the care and study of this unprecedented wealth of material is of high value in broadening and refining his knowledge of the function and structure of the nervous system; yet of still greater interest and offering still greater possibilities for the enlargement of our comprehension of the nature of nervous diseases are those cases, comprising more than two-thirds of the patients in the institution, who are grouped under the name of the hysterical.

When the entire manhood of a nation is mustered into battle, it follows that the nervously frail, the men of unstable equilibrium, must go, too. The shocks and sudden emotional strains of civil life have made a certain number hysterical. It might be expected that under the stress of warfare many would break. The number of such cases arising in the course of war is far greater than in time of peace, but, after all, they form but a small fraction of the total number of nervous cases in the neurological centres.

We have considered them, however, less because of their intrinsic interest than for comparison with another class of cases—the commotionnés, that very large and novel group of cases, comprising several thousand admissions to the neurological hospitals of France, which the French physicians named cerebral commotion, the English shell shock.

In the accounts of the great bombardments we have all read of men who were found dead in the trenches, unwounded. Death had resulted from air concussion in the zone contiguous to the exploding shell. The concussion is more intense and the danger greater if the shell explodes in a closed space, as in the deep chambered trenches of the western front.

Countless Internal Wounds

Most of our commotion cases were injured in the trenches. Often they were hurled some distance, dashed against a wall, and buried alive. If an examination is made of the bodies of these dead, or of those who have survived a few days before death, it is found that there has taken place an intimate tearing of the finer structures throughout the body. The lungs are torn; there are abundant hemorrhages in the pleura and stomach. The blood vessels in the brain are ruptured, and minute hemorrhages are found throughout.

Many are killed outright, but most survive. Even these survivors bleed in many cases from the ears, the lungs, the stomach, the bladder, and bowels. There are sometimes hemorrhages into the retina and under the conjunctivae. The normally clear cerebro-spinal fluid is found blood tinged. Even after blood is no longer found the fluid is often discov-

ered to be under high pressure, the white cells and globulins that indicate damage to the meninges continue to be found in it for months.

The patients seldom regain memory of the beginning of their accidents. At most they recall the whistling sound that preceded the arrival of the shell. In certain cases there will be found only a more or less transient clouding of consciousness, or a very painful sensation of having been beaten on the head. Usually the patient is unable to walk, and as he is carried on the stretcher every movement is painful. The limbs are inert, the head drops on the shoulder. Even when sitting he collapses if not supported. Any movements made are maladroit and imprecise. The sphincters are relaxed; almost all arrive at the aid stations soiled with excrements. Later they may have retention, but in the beginning the contrary is the rule.

The facial expression is typical—comparable to that seen in the cerebral type of infantile paralysis—the corners of the mouth droop, the tongue is paretic, the lids droop, and the eyeballs are without motion. The pupils are dilated, almost always unequal.

In all cases is found the sign of Babinski—irritation of the foot sole, provoking an obvious and prompt elevation of the great toe and a fanlike spreading of the other toes—an unequivocal indication of damage to the motor pathways leading from the brain; and, as further indication of this damage, the tendinous reflexes are generally strongly exaggerated. Kernig's sign of cortical irritation is present.

In cases of moderate severity we observe a rapid retrocession of symptoms. Within twenty-four hours the mental cloudiness tends to disappear, the expression of the face changes, the strabismus diminishes and disappears, the reflexes approach normal.

In severe cases, however, and sometimes from milder ones, there develop a series of most bizarre clinical pictures. It is the general nervous system that is most often and most strikingly affected. As the patient emerges from his clouding of consciousness, he seems to be in a

state of confusion. His memory is weakened. He has lost in power of voluntary attention. He has hallucinations. These psychopathic states may persist for days or months, and are accompanied almost always by persistent nightmares of fire and battle that startle and disturb the rest.

It is at this stage extraordinarily difficult to disentangle symptoms that are due to gross organic injury from those that would be reckoned hysterical. Very frequently there are convulsive attacks that seem frankly similar to that described above; occasionally a case that resembles true Jacksonian epilepsy.

Sight and Hearing Affected

There is often deafness associated with injury to the ears; again, deafness is present with ears apparently normal. Sometimes the deafness is associated with vertigo such as suggests damage to the inner ear.

As to the sight, we encounter every degree of disability, from slight cloudiness of vision and narrowing of the visual field to complete blindness. In a considerable number of cases these troubles are due to damage done the retina. In a larger number, however, so far as examination can determine, they are purely subjective. These troubles of sight and hearing are almost never isolated. They are found associated with an assemblage of other symptoms referable to the nervous system.

Much more frequent than the troubles of the special senses are the paralyses—paralysis of a single member, of both legs, or of a lateral half of the body. Some of these paralyses are obviously due to hemorrhage within the brain, others are a flaccid paralysis with loss of sensation. In all the characteristics that are accessible to investigation most resemble hysterical paralysis, and the greater number are associated with contracture of the muscles.

The foot will be drawn into the position of a clubfoot and firmly fixed there. The hand is tightly clenched, and the wrist and elbow bent. The contracted muscles of half the body may draw the trunk and head to one side. The neck may be fixed

as a wry neck. A very frequent deformity is the bent back. A peculiar circumstance is the violent fit of coughing that is induced by any attempt to straighten the bent back, either in bed or against the wall.

The vocal cords may be paralyzed and the tongue incapable of being protruded, so that the patient is entirely mute, unable to make the slightest sound, to whistle or to blow, or even to imitate the movements of the lips in speech. His breathing muscles are contracted so that he cannot draw a long breath. In milder cases there is a stammering to the degree of almost complete unintelligibility.

A muscular trouble, often of the most striking and startling sort, is the shaking and trembling. This may be a fine tremor, such as we have in Graves's disease, and Graves's disease is a complication that is superadded to the picture in a large percentage of cases, or a very coarse, irregular shaking and jerking of the head, arms, legs, in contortions that make walking or any co-ordinated movement nearly or quite impossible.

Pitiful Motion Pictures

A remarkable series of moving pictures, which are already to be seen in this country, was made of these patients at Lyons. Large groups illustrating each of the contractures and paralyses were marched past the camera, but the most striking groups were the tremblers and the bent backs, and when, as constantly happens, many physicians come to see the astonishing and almost incredible cases that are found in this neurological hospital, the profound pity that these patients excite is inevitably mixed with laughter at the sight of the poor fellows with wildly inco-ordinate movements, struggling to maintain their balance as they totter across the stage of the exhibition hall or shuffle along with feet in constant motion, like a novice at skating, and the back bent forward from the hips almost at right angles.

Upon these troubles of movement there are always superimposed troubles of sensibility. In the paralyses with contraction, and especially in the flaccid paralyses, all the modes of sensibility, superficial and deep, including the sensibility to

electric currents and the sensibility of the bones to vibration, are affected, and often to an extreme degree. Some of the patients have inflicted burns on themselves accidentally without knowing it. In others the joints can be twisted to an extreme degree without causing the least pain or sensation.

In opposition to these anaesthetics or hypoesthesia there is found extreme sensitiveness to pain. Sometimes the patient cannot endure the least touch or the least movement of the limbs.

Purely Physical Causes

Are these patients hysterical in the sense of any of the theories of hysteria that we have mentioned—these deaf, these mutes, these palsied, trembling men with agonized or deadened members? Was it a mental picture or a buried idea or a suggestion from the physician that developed these phenomena?

In the language of Dr. Sollier, the eminent neurologist who is at the head of the hospital at Lyons:

In the true commotion case, we find ourselves in the presence of hysteria in the raw, of the elementary hysteria, in which the physical element is absolutely preponderant, whereas, in the ordinary traumatic hysteria, the somatic phenomena and the psychological phenomena are almost on the same level, and in the commonplace hysteria of civil practice the psychologic element tends to take dominant importance.

When we envisage the similarity of the pictures presented by ordinary hysteria and the nervous phenomena that result from shell shock, we are forced to conclude that their nature is identical. Shell shock thus demonstrates to us that hysteria may be provoked by causes purely physical, and we are led to conclude that the purely psychological theories are inexact, since they do not apply to all the cases. Since it is undeniable, on the other hand, that hysteria can be provoked by emotional and moral causes, we must conclude that there exists an entire gamut of forces—physical, mechanical, organic, and psychic—that may lead to the same clinical results.

Such are the views that are upheld by Dr. Sollier, who in numerous forcible publications had sustained before the war his physiological theory of hysteria. In his treatise on hysteria, published in 1914, he maintained that hysteria was essentially a sleep of portions of the brain, a dulling or numbing (engourdissement) of certain cerebral centres;

that the disassociation of personality resulted from the unequal wakefulness of different portions of the brain; that the attacks were disorderly expressions of a sudden movement toward reawakening.

We must remember that a thought is not, for the individual that harbors it at least, a disembodied concept, but that with every thought there must be a physical change, a movement of matter and energy in the molecular structure of brain cells. Modern psychology concerns itself more and more with the attempt to conceive the physical processes in the brain that accompany thought. Especially in the study of the emotions (and it is the emotional side of ideation with which we are chiefly concerned in hysteria) has emphasis been laid on its physical aspect.

Our American psychologist, William James, lent his astute support to the view that emotion was rather the conscious appreciation of a series of physical changes that resulted from the presence of an idea; that we felt fear because the heart stood still, the hair stood on end, the knees shook at sight of the ghost, rather than that the emotion of fear brought about these physical changes.

We are obliged, if the facts of the development of our commotion cases have been faithfully observed and accurately recorded, to shift from the formerly conventional viewpoint of the essential nature of hysteria and to place the emphasis on its physical and its physiological aspects.

Dr. Babinski and his followers, with their rather narrow definition of hysteria as a malady provoked by suggestion and curable by persuasion, have been led to assert that these grand hysterias of shell shock are not hysteria, and to erect a new and heretofore unheard of classification in which to place them, so far will the attachment of a scientist to a favorite theory carry him. The cases that we see in the military hospitals of France were not produced by suggestion, nor are they amenable to persuasion.

These theoretical considerations, however, are by no means without their practical importance. Even before the earliest publication, in 1895, of his views, Dr.

Sollier contended that by his so-called method of cerebral reawakening he was able to cure by physical and mechanical means many hysterical conditions that proved refractory to suggestion, and it was largely these therapeutic successes that led to the crystallization and development of his idea of hysteria.

Sollier's Method of Cure

Dr. Sollier is a large and vigorous man both morally and physically, a man whom one would fancy inclined by temperament to snatch his patients back to health rather than coax them back. His evident kindness and goodness to his men, however, give them courage to endure without question the rigors of the physical treatment to which they are submitted. The central idea of his treatment is that the cerebral centres must be awakened from their dormant state by physical measures addressed to the parts of the body corresponding to the cerebral involvement.

The treatment of one case, for instance, consisted in cold douches and showers for a general effect, but more particularly in twisting and manipulating the joints of the paralyzed limbs until pain, and even very severe pain, was induced. If bending the finger joints produces no pain, the wrist is manipulated; if the wrist is without sensation, the shoulder is manipulated. Sensibility returns to the anaesthetic areas through the pathway of pain induced in neighboring regions that are more sensitive.

In another case the treatment was to place the hands over the eyes, whereupon the patient would promptly fall into a hypnotic state and go through all the phases of the grand attack. As his struggles began to subside and he was sinking into a quiet sleep, he was ordered to wake up, to awaken his shoulders, awaken his back, awaken his limbs, awaken all over. He is regarded when apparently awake as a vigilambule, one who, while apparently awake, has large portions of his brain cortex asleep, and who for this reason is so easily and by such slight transition thrown into complete hypnotic slumber.

In addition to these treatments carried

out by the attending physicians, and by trained masseurs working under their direction, an interesting and indeed most inspiring part of the work for the restoration of these men is the systematic motor re-education carried out by the men themselves. Every morning from 8 until 9 o'clock, and again of an afternoon from 2 until 3, in the quadrangle of the Lycée the men are gathered at the sound of the bugle for drill.

Patients Treated in Groups

They are grouped in squads according to their several disabilities. The club-footed squad, the hemi-contracted squads, the contractures of the left arm, the contractures of the right arm, and so on. Each squad has its non-commissioned officer, who is himself convalescing from the same disorder, and the whole battalion is under the command of a Sergeant, who is partially recovered from severe organic and functional disturbances.

The apparatus employed in the exercises is of the simplest—a manual of arms carried out with a wooden pole, some board platforms for the exercises to be taken lying down, a few weights and pulleys. The intention is to bring the defective muscles into play through the unconscious influence of limitation; to strengthen the muscles which oppose those that are contracted; to give tone to the physique as well as to the morale of the men.

A physician passes from group to group encouraging and instructing the leaders, calling attention to stragglers that may be failing of the efforts demanded of them. The cheerful atmosphere of this scene, the sharp cries of command making a not unpleasing discord of sound; the emulation of the soldiers to attain the progress that they see others have made—all gives one the feeling that these men are cordially enlisted in the effort to overcome the handicaps under which they labor, and a large part of the success of the treatment in this institution is to be attributed to this community of effort.

It is too early to say whether the views which Dr. Sollier has advanced as to the nature of hysteria, his so-called physiological theory, will be generally accepted.

It is certain that his effort to place the emphasis on the physical and physiological aspects of this trouble has been tremendously favored by the large group of cases that have come to observation through the accidents of war.

When I first walked through his ward and looked with astonishment at the array of nervous phenomena presented, I began to wonder: Is this the result of the traditionally excitable and nervous French temperament? Would Englishmen or Germans or Russians exhibit such astonishing bizarries of nervous function? I learned on asking the physicians of the Lyons hospitals, who were neurologists by profession, that in years of practice at the Salpêtrière, the famous Paris hospital for nervous diseases, they had only rarely encountered cases comparable to hundreds that we had in our hospital. I learned from consulting the literature that Englishmen and Germans were suffering the same nervous accidents as the French.

Some Unsolved Questions

It would be difficult, if not impossible, for Dr. Sollier to prove that the sufferer from shell shock, as he emerged broken and bleeding from unconsciousness, might not, in his awakening intelligence, develop hysterical symptoms on a psychological basis, and that this elementary hysteria of molecular vibration might not have interwoven with it as a psychic state ideas associated with terror and dread, the most powerful of human emotions. His opponents, moreover, will ask him to explain the rarity of these commotional states in the numerous wounded that received physical injuries from projectiles that have exploded near them, patients exposed to the same displacements of air, and the same physical conditions—an embarrassing question to the partisan of the organic theory.

Some of the commotionnés tell us that they had often had large shells burst near them without experiencing anything more than the disturbance legitimate to such circumstances, a disturbance easily mastered and quite transient. Furthermore, as Dr. Sollier has himself pointed out, it is most unwise to return the pa-

tient when apparently quite cured to the firing line. The first explosion in his neighborhood will bring back a return of the old symptoms, sometimes with added violence, so that the recrudescence is apparently due less to the physical reopening of an old wound than to the re-presentation of remembered conditions.

Dr. Sollier's conceptions, however, gain valuable support from the success of his treatments when applied to the commotion cases, even though they be very severe, provided the patient is fortunate enough to be taken in hand early.

Sergeant B., for example, a robust and muscular man of 25, was in Fort Douaumont during a bombardment. He was thrown many yards by the explosion of a large shell; consciousness was lost for some time. At the first-aid station he had difficulty in breathing, and consciousness was only gradually restored. He was brought back at once to Lyons, where he was found to be in a state of general rigidity and hyperesthesia. Even small movements of his limbs were painful. His heart was moderately dilated, pulse rather rapid, fibrillary tremor of the hands, slight goitre, and exophthalmus. When the treatments, which consisted in forced movements of his limbs, were undertaken, he would gradually become stuporous, cry out with pain, and at the close of the séance would almost lose consciousness and would dissolve into tears.

However, after a month of such treatment the stiffness and sensitiveness were rapidly disappearing from his members, he was able to stand erect and walk, and was obviously on the high road to recovery. Had he been treated merely by rest and care, he would probably have made no such progress.

Alongside of him other men, whose injuries had come about in the early months of war, and who in the early stages of their trouble were treated by the conventional methods, seemed to have crystallized in their disabilities. It appeared that after the deformities and tremors had become inveterate it was most difficult to eradicate them, even by the treatment of motor re-education, though this brought about slow and steady gains.

A Harrowing Summary

It was possible, then, in this hospital to find the same clinical pictures resulting from causes of every degree of potency—a slight and merely psychic trauma sufficing to induce the symptoms in the unstable, a violent physical trauma being needed in the well poised.

1. There were the highly neurotic subjects, who had never been near the front, but who on receiving the news from home of the death of a wife or being parted from a sweetheart had developed these terrible attacks and paryses. These were few.

2. There was the somewhat larger group of cases similar to the first two cited, cases of tougher-fibred but still imaginative men, whom the emotional shocks of the campaign, combined with fatigue and long strain, had been able to bring to a grand hysteria.

3. A third group more stable than the last could be made hysterical only if, after being weakened by hunger, sleeplessness, and overwork, they were subjected to the shock of a violent explosion, though the same shock might have previously left them untouched.

4. Last, there were men, stalwart, tranquil, robust men, who had never known nervousness, neither personally nor in their families—unimaginative, stolid men, who, being suddenly hurled through the air, torn and lacerated in the finer structures of their bodies by an explosion, buried alive perhaps by falling earth, were, when they ultimately regained consciousness, transformed instantaneously into disorganized neurotics, exhibiting all the characteristics typical of the grand hysterics.

To see these strong men suddenly reduced from the flower and vigor of youth to doddering, palsied wrecks, quivering at a sound, dreading the visions of the night, mute or deaf, paralyzed or shaken by violent agitations, rent from time to time by convulsive seizures as though tormented by many devils—this wreckage of men's souls seemed to me to mirror more vividly the horror of war than any picture drawn from the carnage of the battlefield.

Curious German War Medals

"In Our Iron Time—1916"

George Macdonald, who a year ago described in *The Scotsman* some 500 German war medals struck during the first eighteen months of the war, has written this interesting account of later medals announced in a supplementary catalogue issued in Amsterdam.

APATHETIC feature of the new sales catalogue of German war medals and "tokens" is the great increase in the number of specimens of paper money of small denominations, intended to supply a currency for prisoners' camps or for those portions of the allied countries which are in enemy occupation. It is strange, for instance, to encounter a group of notes, ranging in nominal value from 2 francs to 10 centimes, that belonged to an issue of 2,000,000 francs, guaranteed under date April 23, 1915, by a resolution of seventy communes in the region of the Somme and the Aisne. When one sees in the list such familiar names as Miramont, Irles, Courcelettes, Thilloy, and Warlencourt, one shudders to think of the appalling rate at which the securities, heritable and other, must have depreciated through the action of high explosives.

All the belligerents, except Japan and Portugal, have contributed their quota to the sum total of the war medals proper. Germany, however, has once again been far and away the most active. In a fair proportion of cases the underlying motive has obviously been a desire to honor individuals by associating them with some particular achievement or with some popular declaration of policy. The collection, in fact, constitutes a sort of national portrait gallery of all the German Admirals, German Generals, and German statesmen whom the events of the last three years have brought into prominence. A bust of von Tirpitz, for example, is backed by a plump figure of Germania "doing battle for the freedom of the seas," while both von Scheer and Hipper receive credit for their great "victory off the Skagerrak," which is said to have been won "not by chance but by sheer capacity." The military

laurels have been gathered mainly on the eastern front, and first and foremost by von Mackensen.

The big events of 1916 in the west are but rarely alluded to, although a huge iron medal with allegorical figures depicts "the horrors of the Somme," and a companion piece shows the scourge of war descending upon Verdun. Tit-bits from the Imperial Chancellor's Reichstag speech of June 5 are immortalized on unwieldy lumps of metal bearing his image and superscription, and royalties more or less considerable are, of course, sprinkled freely through the pages of the catalogue—so freely, indeed, that the Kaiser and the Crown Prince tend rather to be elbowed into the background.

A good deal of space is occupied by heroes of less exalted rank, like the aviators Boelcke and Immelmann. On the latter of these one enthusiastic medalist has conferred the title of "The Eagle of Lille." And it is interesting to observe that few even of the major happenings of the war have caught the German imagination in the way that the exploits of the Möwe and the voyage of the Deutschland appear to have done. The capture of the Appam could hardly have been more loudly celebrated if it had affected the naval situation as profoundly as did Trafalgar.

The tribute of medallic portraiture is paid not only to the raider's Captain, Count zu Dohna-Schlodien, but also to the officer who navigated the prize to the United States, Lieutenant Berg. So, too, with Captain König of the Deutschland, in immediate juxtaposition to whom we are astonished to find a much older Atlantic voyager—to wit, no less a person than Francis Drake himself. The first glance at his bust, dressed in correct Elizabethan costume, and identified beyond possibility of mistake by his name, sets one wondering whether Houston

Stewart Chamberlain has succeeded in proving that the Spanish Armada was defeated by Germans. But the real explanation is a veritable anti-climax; it is furnished by an inscription on the reverse, "Francis Drake was the name of a gallant man who three centuries ago sailed from England to America in command of a ship, and who when he returned from his distant travels brought with him the good things that we call potatoes. This useful vegetable we owe to the very same State that is today—1916—endeavoring to starve us out. Such is the irony of world history and of world politics."

The Drake Medal is not the only one on which the food difficulty is frankly alluded to. Another piece pillories the butchers who indulge in "profiteering," and threatens them with handcuffs and the knout. A third is directed against the bakers, two of whom are represented diligently sawing a log of wood in order to secure material for bread. That bronze is growing scarce is abundantly clear from the fact that it is not used for almost any of the recent medals, iron being the usual substitute. And gold, as might be expected, is altogether unknown. In this connection a small medal of iron is of special interest; it is issued by the Reichsbank, and presented to persons who hand gold ornaments over the counter. On the obverse is a kneeling woman, holding out a piece of jewelry, accompanied by the legend, "In our iron time, 1916." On the reverse is a branch of oak, and the couplet:

Gold I gave in hour of need,
Iron received as honour's meed.

Presumably the idea is that this should be transmitted as an heirloom. The same consideration for the future is plainly responsible for a medal having on the obverse a "Pickelhaube," or spiked helmet, resting on a shield, and on the reverse a mailed fist clasping a hand that is indubitably feminine, the two between them supporting a sword. The legend is, "Wedded in war time." The mention of "war weddings" inevitably suggests a search for the "war baby." And, sure enough, here he is on another medal, nestling inside an in-

verted "Pickelhaube," which reposes on a little pile of bombs. The inscription reads, "Born during the world war." The well-to-do can purchase either of the last two medals in silver.

The productions just described give us a quaint glimpse into the mentality of the great nation with whom our own is now locked in a life-and-death struggle.



A MUCH-SOUGHT-AFTER GERMAN MEDAL, STRUCK TO COMMEMORATE THE SUBMARINE BLOCKADE OF ENGLAND, FEB. 18, 1915. IT PROVIDES AN EARLY EXAMPLE OF THE FAMOUS PHRASE "GOTT STRAFE ENGLAND"

The definitely satiric medals are a more lurid illuminant. It is sometimes said that a boxer never feels thoroughly confident until he sees that his opponent is losing his temper. If the analogy holds good, a perusal of the catalogue should be comforting. In any case it provides a wholesome discipline in the way of seeing ourselves as others see us. The rest of the Allies escape almost scot-free, except for a few fierce thrusts at Italy or at individual Italians, like Gabriele d'Annunzio, who is represented as Judas Iscariot. It is for Britain that the vials of German wrath are reserved. And what vials they are! Humor, or at all events humor of the conscious variety, has taken to itself wings.

The catalogue contains nothing quite so shocking as the Lusitania medal. On the other hand, one cannot help observing that the author of that infamy, Karl Goetz, now appears to enjoy extraordinary popularity as a designer. A speci-

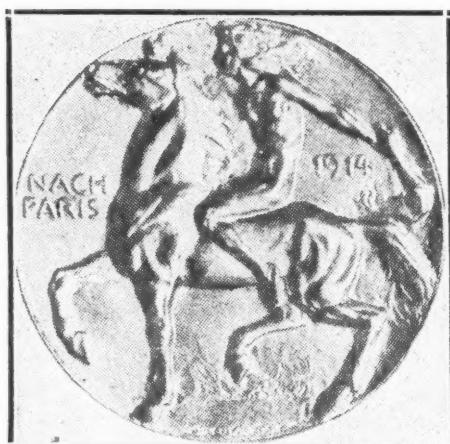
men of his handiwork, dealing with the loss of the Zeppelin L-19 in the North Sea, forms a highly instructive counterpart to the performance through which he first became notorious. On the obverse is the airship laboring heavily amid the waves; the crew have clustered on the upper portion of the envelope, and are looking over the angry waters to a trawler, the King Stephen, which is disappearing in the distance. The reverse is almost wholly occupied by the inscription, "Curse the British at sea! Curse your evil conscience," which is doubtless meant to express the feelings of the Zeppelin crew, (who are all represented as shaking their fists vigorously,) and by the descriptive sentence, "Shipwrecked men, imploring help, were left to drown, 2d February, 1916." Yet an

of mediaeval instruments of torture, from the midst of which there grins a skull with serpents issuing from its eyes. Across the field is the date of Casement's execution, "3d August, 1916," while round the margin is the doggerel verse:

Edward Third's dead hand
Fastens the noose round Ireland.

Another echo of the unhappy Irish rising presents us with a picture of Death, wearing the undress cap of a hussar and smoking a clay pipe, seated jauntily on the edge of a tomb inscribed "Home Rule. R. I. P." He is contemplating with apparent satisfaction a bunch of shamrock which he holds in his hand, and which is described in the rubric as "A posy of May flowers from the Emerald Isle." This medal is one of a group of six executed by a certain W. Eberbach. They are identical in size, and are clearly meant to be regarded as forming a sort of "danse macabre." In all of them the same repulsive figure is conspicuously "featured," as the cinema advertisements would have it. Thus on one he stands astride above the sinking Lusitania, gloating over her as she sinks beneath the waves, the accompanying legend being "Spite and heedless frivolity on board of the Lusitania." The reverse dedicates the medal "To Woodrow Wilson, the man who despised our warning. 1916."

It is far from agreeable to linger in such company. But the effrontery displayed in a third member of the series is so colossal that one cannot pass it by in silence. As in the case of all the others, Death dominates the field. This time he is seated with his back to the spectator, closely watching a passing liner, whose fate is plainly foretold by the mine which he holds in one hand and the torpedo which he grasps in the other. Above are the words, "England's greeting to the neutral ship *Tubantia*," the *Tubantia* being, of course, the fine Dutch steamer which was one of the first victims of Germany's campaign against neutrals. On the reverse is the unexceptionable sentiment, "The best of people can't live in peace if their wicked neighbor doesn't want them to." Britain or Germany—which of these was neighbor to him that fell among thieves?



GERMAN SILVER MEDAL INSCRIBED "NACH PARIS" ON ONE SIDE, WITH A PORTRAIT OF GENERAL VON KLUCK ON THE FACE, MADE IN ANTICIPATION OF THE FALL OF PARIS

other of Goetz's creations shows on the obverse a half-length portrait of Roger Casement, stripped to the waist and bound, with a lanky Highlander busily engaged in tying a rope round his neck; as caricatured in Germany, the British Army usually wears a kilt, a delicate compliment which Scotsmen will not be slow to appreciate. On the reverse a spider is hard at work weaving its web round a stout volume, which is labeled "English Law, 1351." The book itself is supported by a pleasing assortment

The War Problems of Mothers

By the Countess of Warwick

[Published by arrangement with The London Chronicle.]

MOTHERS of soldiers have been in evil plight from time immemorial, ever since the waging of the first wars in some forgotten era of which history takes no count, but in England their troubles in the past were never as they are today. Before 1914 we had a professional army for which men underwent long training; only in a few families did the service claim all the sons; as a rule there were some who chose a civil calling. The result was very satisfactory. Mothers had a sense of double security. In the first place, the risks of war could not reach all their loved ones; secondly, the ethics of war could not dominate the house.

Thinking women, whether educated or not, have always recognized in militarism the merciless enemy of feminism; it is a fight to a finish between the two, and neither side will abate its claims. While militarism is up, feminism is down, and when the latter ascends the former must go. I have known suffragists belonging to families that have a great military record, and some of them have hesitated to face the truth on account of personal family history, but there can be no two opinions about it. If women did not realize the whole truth earlier it was because the services claimed no more than a part of their family, and the war risks were comparatively small. In the past sixty years the last Transvaal war (1899-1902) has been the only really serious conflict, and that was little more than an affair of outposts by the side of the struggle that engages the world today.

If the responsible section of my sex has been betrayed by the love of gold lace, ribbons, stars, crosses, and other decorations into thinking too well of war through all the years of peace, the retribution, long though it lingered, has come at last. It has taken a double form. Some of our sons have gone to their

death, and this, indeed, is tragedy enough; but other of our sons have come back dead to the life that held them before they went away, and this in many instances is the worst tragedy of all. A mother's love for her son is something that no man can nearly understand; so many things enter into it beyond the reach of his perceptions. The thinking



COUNTESS OF WARWICK

woman looks to him to carry some at least of her ideals into the world; she molds him that he may be better, nobler, more useful to humanity than she herself ever hoped to be, even in dreams.

It is not easy to say how the mother of a lad who fulfills her ideals would decide if she could choose for him one of two fates—the first, to die in battle in the earliest flush of youth and idealism, returning to his Creator a soul unstained;

the second, to return from the war sound of limb, but with the feeling that our ends and aims are not shaped by any Divinity, that nothing matters, and that it is well to eat and drink and be merry today, because tomorrow the just and the unjust man will share a common grave, over which the dust of oblivion will soon be blowing. I can imagine no more terrible choice for any mother, but I cannot doubt what answer would spring to the lips of those who have kept their faith quite free from definitions, in spite of the bankruptcy of Church and of State. Happily, such an awful responsibility does not fall to any one.

Yet it will be the fate of innumerable mothers to welcome back to their homes, when war is over, sons whose finer susceptibilities and emotions have lost all their edge, boys who were in all save military eyes too young to be plunged into the inferno of strife, who, after growing careless of death, are now careless of life. Men go through their appointed task with unquenchable heroism, and there is no detailed story of a day's work that cannot thrill to the heart, but here in England, happily, we see nothing of the actualities; we read of cannon fodder, but do not realize what it actually means. We only know vaguely that every time the sun rises in the east so many hundreds, or even thousands, of lads and men look upon the dawn for the last time, and that by the hour when the west is reddening whatever their lives held of promise for the world at large is lost. Ours is the knowledge, but the actual sight of all the hideous welter upon which the pen forbears to dwell is the experience of our young sons. How many of us, not lacking in courage, could face with open eyes the sights with which our lads have grown familiar?

There is a certain esprit de corps among fighting men. They are jovial to the last, they have neither the time nor the mood to mourn, the normal values of life have passed entirely out of sight. Recklessness is the order of the hour, it strays from action to thought. Young officers have told me in all seriousness that we at home have no real idea of life

at all. To savor the true sense of it one must needs go to the trenches, or over the blackened sites of villages that once held a few hundred simple, harmless lives. "Perhaps God ruled over Europe once upon a time," said one, with a sudden burst of candor, "but I know He doesn't now. Even He could not claim to rule and be responsible for the things I've seen; and ours is no more than a few yards of line." Another assured me that when the army is finally disbanded, nobody will go to church. "There never could be any hypocrisy," he assured me, "equal to going to church after all one has seen."

"Yes, I did hear those rather pitiful stories about the angels at Mons, but they were supposed to have been seen when the war was a month old. If anybody tells of angels now, it is one of the forms of shell-shock. That does make some men pray and others curse, and some can't do the one or the other, and they go mad. But nothing really matters. We all do what we can, and the enemy does the same, and we'll win because, man for man, we're better, even if we're not as clever, and those who don't go west today will go tomorrow, or next week or next month, but most of us will get there before we see the Rhine." He went on to talk lightly of a revue that he had been taken to see three times on his brief leave. "I suppose it's rather a beastly thing," he said, "but we all laughed, and it doesn't matter much anyway."

I could dive deeper into the problem I have suggested rather than outlined here, but to do so would be to commit a breach of confidence. Suffice it that the responsible mothers of the young men who come home have a grave problem before them, the more grave because they cannot, save in a very few exceptional cases, solve it for themselves. All mothers have to remember that their sons grow up, and that of all the forcing processes in the world none is quite so drastic as war. The lads will have reached the time when they will turn for counsel, sympathy, and affection, not to their mothers, who would so willingly give them of their best, but

to the daughters of other mothers, who will become mothers in their turn. I do not think I have ever regretted more keenly the neglect of the education of girls in the middle and upper classes, the little provision there is in it by which they may save alive the soul of a man who is in danger of losing it.

It is one of the ironies of the times that the daughters whose education is in so many instances scarcely worthy the name, whose tastes are so often perverted by the empty life of pleasure that is the only life within their grasp, whose physique is injured by town life, badly ventilated rooms, ill-chosen food, fashionable clothes and the rest of the evil to which the daughters of wealthy parents are heir, should be asked to save the race. Yet, however great the irony of the situation, that situation exists. It must be faced. The battle of militarism against feminism will be resumed. Consciously or unconsciously, they will be combatants. They, and not the mothers who yearn for sons lost and sons worse than lost, must play their part, live awhile face to face with the grave prob-

lem, solve, trifle with or ignore it. War has loaded the dice for militarism. The times will gamble with these loaded dice for the bodies of a generation yet unborn, and all that many a lad will have to stand between him and the further disaster of perpetuating the evils of our day will be some young, fair, foolish head with eyes that a piece of braid or ribbon may be able to dazzle.

I am conscious of a clear conviction that feminists of every class and creed should unite to face this problem; any other success while such a work remains undone is the gain of the shadow and the loss of the substance. The girls of England whose attractions will rule the English world and decide the character of the next generation must be reached while there is yet time, and something of their responsibilities brought home to them. If they are going to disregard them and help to prolong the agonies of our failing civilization, let it not be said that they erred through ignorance or because there were none to teach them the truth about the part they are called upon to play.

British Women in War Service

THE British War Office issued, at the end of February, 1917, the following statement of the terms and conditions governing the employment of women with the British armies in France. Many thousands of women in England had long been awaiting official arrangements enabling them to volunteer for this service:

For twelve months, subject to termination earlier at the discretion of the Army Council upon one month's notice, except for misconduct or incompetence, when one week's notice will be given. The engagement may be renewed by mutual consent at the termination of the first period. A bonus of £5 will be paid to each woman, irrespective of grade, on renewal of the agreement for a second period.

There are five main categories of employment, viz.: (a) Clerical, typist, shorthand typist; (b) cooks, waitresses, and domestic staff; (c) motor transport service; (d) storehouse women, checkers, and un-

skilled labor; (e) telephone and postal services, and (f) in addition there will be certain miscellaneous services which do not fall within the above main classification.

(a) Ordinary clerical work and typists, 23s. to 27s. per week, according to efficiency; clerks employed on higher clerical and supervisory duties, 28s. to 32s. per week, according to efficiency; shorthand typists, 28s. to 32s. per week, according to efficiency. These rates of pay cover forty-two working hours per week, after which overtime will be paid at the rate of 7d. per hour for ordinary clerks and 9d. per hour for clerks employed on higher work and shorthand typists.

(b) Head cooks and waitresses, £40 per annum; cooks, waitresses, and housemaids, £26 per annum, with free board and lodging, together with 6d. per week for personal washing.

(c) Superintendents, first class, 52s. 6d. per week; superintendents, second class, 46s. per week; head drivers, 40s. per week; qualified driver-mechanics, 35s. per week; washers, 20s. per week. These above weekly rates in-

clude Sunday work when necessary, but if employed on Sunday a day's rest in lieu will be given. In addition, overtime will be allowed, except to superintendents, at the rate of 5d. per hour after eight and a half working hours per day.

(d) Storehouse women and unskilled labor, 20s. per week. Extra pay up to 2s. per week where special aptitude is required; leading hands, 22s. per week; checkers, 22s. to 24s. per week; assistant forewomen, 24s. per week; forewomen, 21s. to 30s. per week, according to number of staff supervised. These rates cover forty-eight working hours per week. Overtime, at time and a quarter for the first two hours per day; thereafter and on Sundays, time and a half.

(e) Telephone and postal services. Rates of pay are under consideration by the Postmaster General and will be announced later.

(f) Miscellaneous services. Special rates of pay, according to nature of employment, with a minimum of 20s. per week.

No woman under twenty or over forty years of age will be eligible for employment. A short form of agreement will be entered into. A medical examination by a woman doctor will be necessary. The period of preparation in England will include elementary instruction in hygiene and discipline. Free conveyance to and from France on appointment and termination of engagement will be provided. A fortnight's leave will be given

during each year's service. An allowance of 4s will be paid to provide uniform at the beginning of service, with a further grant of 1s at the end of six months. Similar grants will be made for the second year's service. Slightly different grants will be made in the case of the Motor Transport Section.

In all cases other than (b) cooks, waitresses, and domestic staff; (d) storehouse women and unskilled labor, and (f) miscellaneous services—a deduction not exceeding 14s. per week will be made to cover cost of board and lodging and washing on a regulated scale, which will be provided by the military authorities. In the case of (d) storehouse women and unskilled labor and (f) miscellaneous services, when the pay is less than 21s. per week, the deduction will not in any case exceed 13s. a week. The women will be accommodated, while in France, in hostels, under the care and supervision of lady superintendents. The above applies to France only. It must be understood that enrollment for service includes service at home as well as in France. Those who have a preference should declare it. Where preference for France is declared it will be satisfied if possible, and service in France may ultimately follow service begun at home. The conditions of service of the various classes of women workers at home will remain as at present.

To the First Gun

By ROBERT UNDERWOOD JOHNSON

[The liner *St. Louis*, the first American merchant ship to carry guns through the German submarine zone, sailed from New York on March 18, 1917]

Speak, silent, patient gun!
And let thy mighty voice
Proclaim the deed is done—
Made is the nobler choice;
To every waiting people run
And bid the world rejoice.

Tell them our heaving heart
Has found its smiting hand,
That craves to be a part
Of the divine command.
Speak, prove us more than ease or mart,
And vindicate the land.

Thine shall the glory be
To mark the sacred hour
That testifies the free
Will neither cringe nor cower.
God give thy voice divinity
That Right be armed with Power.

Thou art not lifeless steel
With but a number given,
But messenger of weal
Hot with the wrath of heaven.
Go earn the right to Honor's seal—
To have for Honor striven.

Lead us in holy ire
The path our fathers trod;
The music of thy fire
Shall thrill them through the sod.
The smoke of all thy righteous choir
Is incense unto God.

And when long Peace is found
And thou has earned thy rest,
And in thy cave of sound
The sparrow builds her nest,
By Liberty shalt thou be crowned
Of all thy comrades, best.

German Women as War Workers

By Caroline V. Kerr

The writer of this article has recently returned to the United States after having served for many years as Berlin correspondent of a New York newspaper. She is able, therefore, to furnish a first-hand report on the wartime activities of German women.

WHAT are the women of Germany doing today? Everything, from sitting in the civic councils to sweeping the snow from the streets. From the very outbreak of the great war it was plain to be seen that the women of Germany were filled with the determination to play their part in the great national epic, and to play it with fortitude and devotion. At no time have they swerved or faltered, and Dr. Delbrück, late Minister for Home Affairs, paid the women of Germany a well-deserved tribute when he declared in the Reichstag that "such intelligent co-operation and striking efficiency as that displayed by the women of the land since the beginning of the war could not be dispensed with when normal conditions were once more restored."

Not only are they engaged in the manifold phases of relief work such as obviously fall upon the womenfolk of a nation at war, but they have taken the places left vacant by the men on the farm and in the factory. The rapid readjustment of the German labor market was due to the fact that the number of female industrial workers was increased by half a million during the first eight months of the war. This new home army has been chiefly employed in the "war industries"—that is to say, in the metal and machine works or in the electrical and chemical plants. Fifty thousand women are employed in one large ammunition factory, and the manufacture of shells is almost

entirely in the hands of the women. Female labor is utilized, to a large extent, in the production of other war supplies which do not represent so striking a departure from normal activities. This is the case with the textile industries and the factories for ready-made clothing.

No one has been surprised to find German women developing great organizing gifts in dealing with the many ramifications of the Red Cross work, in operating a National League for Public Service, and in elaborating a well-nigh perfect system of municipal kitchens, but it was scarcely to be expected that they would so readily fall into line when it came to recruiting the ranks of the thousand and one small trades and vocations which go to

make up the everyday life of a big nation. They are serving with success as letter carriers, as messenger boys, as chauffeurs, as window cleaners, as "motor-men," as conductors on the street cars and subways, and one is reported as having joined the ancient and honorable guild of chimney-sweeps.

They are familiar figures on the streets where public works are in course of construction, and if you ask them who looks after their households in the meantime they cheerfully explain that they can rely upon the thoroughly organized system of municipal welfare work to care for them and their children.

Women have been included in the municipal councils of Berlin and other large cities, and no civic measure bear-



CROWN PRINCESS CECILIE
OF GERMANY

ing upon the subjects of alimentation and public welfare is carried out without their counsel and co-operation; in fact, a few women of extraordinary initiative and executive ability may be spoken of as ex-officio members of the German Home Office.

Frau Heyl's Enterprises

One of these is Frau Sophie Heyl, the woman who gave the impulse to the centralization of the national movement in household economics. Frau Heyl has received many orders for distinguished service, but no one of these is as gratifying to her as the unofficial title bestowed upon her of "The Hindenburg of the Kitchen."

She is verily a generalissimo in her line of work, and in the opening days of the war gave striking proofs of her gifts in this direction by mobilizing the housekeepers of the land and initiating them into the rôle they were expected to play in the great campaign then opening. Her ever-fertile brain evolved one scheme after another for meeting the unexpected economic situation, and the awakening of a national consciousness among the cooks and housewives of the empire was largely due to the efforts of this remarkable woman.

It was she who organized and financed the first relief kitchen for the "shame-faced poor," and it was due to her foresight that the meat and vegetables were concocted into the savory stew, known as "gulasch," millions of tins of which were sent to the soldiers in the trenches. More than that, her name became a household word throughout the land by means of the series of "War Cook Books," compiled at the request of the German Home Office and distributed gratis by the tens of thousands.

Frau Heyl has not confined her energies to household economics on a large scale, but, believing in the efficacy of small economies, has instituted potato-paring and cherry-pit campaigns. Such activities may seem ridiculously small to the outside world, but are not to be despised in a country now passing through the state of "commercial isolation," once foreseen by the great German philosopher, Fichte.

Public Service League

What Frau Heyl has accomplished in the field of household economics has been achieved along the broader lines of national welfare work by Dr. Gertrude Baumer, President of the National Council of German Women and of that remarkable war organization known as the National League of Public Service.

This organization represents a concentration of effort and a comprehensiveness of scope never before attempted by the women of any country. The war was scarcely a week old when the call went out from Berlin to the remotest corner of the empire summoning the women of Germany to the colors, and the result was the present far-reaching organization prepared to meet every exigency of the war relief and public welfare work.

Both Dr. Baumer and Frau Heyl attribute the phenomenal rapidity with which they were able to organize such large bodies of women, and direct their activities into channels of efficiency, to the much-decried "Prussian militarism," which they claim only means schooling and subordination of the individual to the well-being of the masses—in other words, discipline and organization.

Every town, village, and hamlet throughout Germany maintains a branch of the Public Service League, and these local organizations receive a weekly budget from the municipal treasuries and thus work hand in hand with the city authorities in disbursing the relief funds. Some idea of the magnitude of the work may be gained from the fact that in Berlin alone more than ten million marks are paid out every month to the soldiers' families, and practically all the applications for aid are handled by the league. In two months the Berlin relief committees distributed food certificates and bread and milk cards to a total amount of more than 130,000 marks.

Relief of the Needy

Some of the duties of the league are to look after the war widows and orphans, to feed the hungry, to clothe the destitute, to find work for the unemployed, to mediate between land-

lords and tenants, and in every possible way to come to the immediate and effective relief of all the needy classes of the population. One of the chief activities of the league at the beginning of the war was to care for the thousands and thousands of refugees from the devastated provinces of East Prussia who poured into Berlin and other cities of the interior and for months claimed the hospitality of their more fortunate compatriots living within the "safety zone." In addition to the funds appropriated by the city, the league is the constant recipient of voluntary contributions; in fact, its treasury is in no danger of being exhausted should the war continue indefinitely.

A fact of striking significance in connection with this organization was the sweeping away of all religious and party barriers. The League of Catholic Women as well as those of pronounced Social Democrat tenets allied themselves with the national movement, and a Swedish writer, in commenting upon this phenomenon, says that if "dismembered Germany was welded into an empire by the war of 1870-71, the war of 1914 may be said to have accomplished still more for the nation by bringing about an inner unification and creating an entirely new quality of national consciousness."

The basic principle underlying the activities of the league is to discourage charity and make every applicant for aid self-supporting. It is not possible to carry out this principle in all cases, but its general wisdom is incontestable. Living upon the charity of others soon becomes an incurable habit and is utterly destructive of all feelings of self-respect and personal responsibility.

Parallel with the work of the Public Service League is that of the so-called "Frauendank"—an endowment fund al-

ready amounting to many millions, designed as a special expression of gratitude from the women of Germany to their fallen heroes. The interest on this fund, which is splendidly invested, is to be supplied to the permanent support of the families thus left unprovided for.

It is the women who have also taken the lead in the national "Gold Offering." The official head of this work is the German Crown Princess, from whose various royal residences rich treasures

have been sent to swell the sacrifices laid upon the altar of the Fatherland.

There is no busier woman in the empire than the Crown Princess, as she must not only lend her name and influence to the manifold war organizations, but she is also called upon to represent the Empress at all public functions owing to the fact that the latter has withdrawn herself from active participation in the broader phases of the relief work and

confines herself to a few charities lying very near to her heart.

Thus it happens that the Crown Princess is daily claimed by some official duty or errand of mercy; now she makes the round of the military hospitals; now she is investigating the progress made at the lace school started under her aegis; now she is presiding at a bazaar, where her services are eagerly sought as a saleswoman; now she is acting as patroness at a charity concert, the least irksome of all her duties, as she is a thorough musician. She is particularly interested in the work being accomplished by the Crown Princess Hospital Train, the gift of the Schoenberg Borough of Greater Berlin and said to be the best-equipped hospital on wheels in Germany.

The active participation taken by the royal women of Germany in all phases



GRAND DUCHESS LOUISE OF BADEN

of the war relief work has been a great stimulus to the women of the land, who feel that the war has bridged the social chasm and united them in one common work, quite irrespective of caste distinctions. Here they meet on common ground and are all engaged in fulfilling their sacred duties as wives, mothers, and citizens.

Even the octogenarian Grand Duchess Louise of Baden does not allow her age to deter her from being present to welcome the German wounded soldiers when they first touch home soil at Constance on their way back from the prison camps of France.

Other Royal Women

The Queen of Bavaria is another royal woman whose heart and soul are in the relief work, and in the opening days of the war she personally presided over the sewing rooms established in one of the wings of her Munich palace.

Court society furnishes no more striking example of fidelity to a self-imposed task than Princess Henckel-Dommersmarck, the wife of Germany's largest coal magnate. Despite her years, this woman not only maintains but personally supervises a hospital of 200 beds. By 8 o'clock in the morning she has entered upon her round of daily executive duties, and 8 o'clock in the evening finds her still engaged in her work of mercy.

Baroness von Ihne, one of the beauties of German Court society, was one of the first to recognize the necessity of placing the work being done for the "war blind" on an organized basis, and her Home for the Blind was the first of many to undertake the systematic education of this most tragic class of war sufferers. Here again an endowment fund already reaching the millions insures permanent aid to the beneficiaries.

Another field of work to which German women have devoted themselves with great energy is gardening—not futile, amateur attempts to make things grow, but "war gardening" on a large and purposeful scale.

Baroness von Flotow is the head gardener at the Teltow Vegetable Fields near

Berlin, where 200 young women of gentle birth and breeding have braved wind and weather for two years in the execution of their volunteer task of cultivating 150 acres of land. This is only the largest of the "war gardens" which hang like a heavy green fringe around the skirts of Greater Berlin, now widening, now narrowing as the brick and mortar of the suburban settlements or the shining black ribbon of railway steel imposes an obstacle to their further progress.

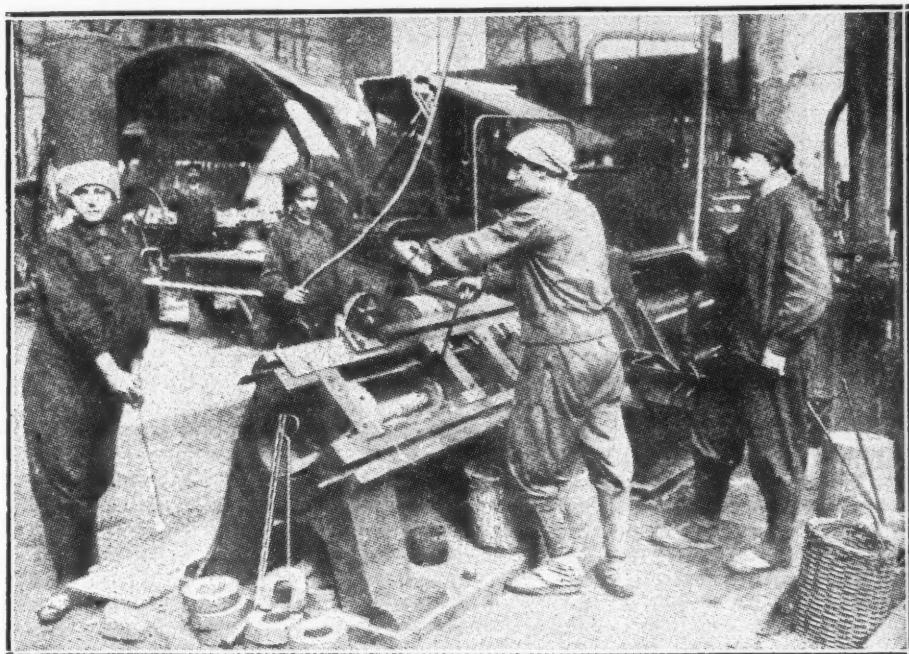
The fruits and vegetables grown in these war gardens are sold for minimum prices in the co-operative retail shops opened up by the housewives' unions, who are thus in a position to control the prices of foodstuffs.

Raising Sunflower Seeds

Nothing is deemed so insignificant as to be a negligible quantity in the general economic scheme. A case in point is furnished by the attention paid to the cultivation of the sunflower, strongly recommended to the gardening element by reason of the oil to be extracted from the seeds and the "sunflower cake" to be made from the residue and used as fodder.

Sunflower products form an important item in Russia's export trade, the revenue derived from the export of sunflower oil alone having brought the State the sum of 4,000,000 rubles a year. Germany is not rich in oil-producing plants, and before the war was obliged to import practically her entire supply of oils and fats. In thus encouraging the home production of an indispensable article hitherto bought in foreign countries, the Government has evidently taken as a precedent the present sugar beet industry, which owes its origin to the Continental blockade imposed by Napoleon I. in his wars with England. Forced back upon her own efforts to supply the nation's needs in this article, Germany then laid the foundation of one of her most highly developed national industries.

Naturally the question arises as to what this activity on the part of the women will lead to after the war. Dr. Gertrude Baumer answers this question at the close of her book on the "German



GERMAN WOMEN AT WORK IN A STATE GUN FACTORY

Woman in War Welfare Work." Here she says: "Thousands of women have been brought to a full realization of their duties as citizens in this hour of fate and will remain true to their awakened consciousness. The war has had a qualitative effect upon woman's work and endeavor by reason of the fact that the enormous and unprecedented problems created by the war have forced all sociological organizations to shake off their dilettantism and plant themselves upon the firm ground of scientific knowledge and systematized effort.

Moreover, the official recognition of the part played by the women in the communal and national work has already been shown by the appointment of women as members to the city councils and deputations, the full significance of

which will not be, can not be, estimated until after the war.

The German Nation will not be able to forget that the stern fight for existence behind the front was made possible only by the unremitting efforts of the women of the land, working hand in hand with the men and contributing cheerfully and intelligently to the economic upkeep of the nation. Even women who are not avowed suffragists think that universal suffrage will be one of the inevitable results of the war, for the reason that the law-givers of all the belligerent countries can no longer deny this crowning privilege to the wives and mothers who have worked so bravely, suffered so keenly, and endured so patiently through the long years of this cruel war.

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The War's Effects on Woman's Status

AUGUST WINNIG, NATIONAL SECRETARY
BUILDING TRADE UNION OF GERMANY

Women in all the belligerent countries of Europe have taken men's places in industrial life in unprecedented numbers. In Germany at the end of 1916 the number of women employed in industries covered by the sickness and death benefit societies numbered 4,793,472, or nearly one-half the persons included in the insurance system. This is a 33 per cent. increase since the beginning of the war. At the same time there were in England 3,219,000 women employed outside their own homes, of whom 766,000 had replaced men gone to war. About 500,000 of these had gone into munition plants. Cecil Harmsworth, head of the Woman's War Employment Commission, stated on Jan. 6, 1917, that his commission then had a trifle over 1,000,000 women doing men's work, and that they had saved England. In France similar conditions exist, and hundreds of thousands of women are making munitions at wages ranging from \$1.05 to \$2.15 a day. French schools are now taught almost exclusively by women, a radical change from the past, and one likely to remain after the war.—EDITOR CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE.

THE world war is a revolution the extent and meaning of which will be fully apparent only to coming generations. Regarding the complex problems that, taken together, are called the woman question, the war has shown itself to be genuinely revolutionary, as it is fast ripening the new social and economic phenomena that have grown out of the peculiar needs of our period. The increasing prominence of woman in the life of Germany and her independent position both mentally and economically form a not unimportant peculiarity of our day. This is a phenomenon inseparably connected with the development and advance of capitalist administration, and, consequently, cannot be stopped by anything, although naturally it may be influenced.

Right here the war has given the wheel of time a powerful turn ahead. For nobody need imagine that with the return of peace everything in this matter will go back to its old form. On the contrary, there are many considerations that force us to the conclusion that, even after the war, women's labor will constitute a far more weighty factor in industry than it did before. It is also certain that this phenomenon cannot be restricted to Germany alone. After the war all Europe will be compelled to employ women to a greater extent in industry. Millions of men in the flower of their working lives are being eliminated from the industrial sphere, either through death

or permanent injury. Europe must find substitutes for them, if she doesn't want to lose her hard-pressed position of superiority in the world of industry, or, more correctly stated, if she wishes to regain it. Millions of the wives of the dead or crippled participants in the war need and seek industrial employment in order to earn a necessary addition to their pension allowances.

The surplus of women will increase, and, in line with this fact, there will be a rise in the number of women who must renounce the idea of marriage and make themselves economically independent. We must expect a sharper competition among the industrial States for the export markets, and this will involve an increased effort to lower the cost of production. These conditions will be present and their influence will be felt in all the industrial nations. Therefore this mighty transformation in the economic position of woman is not limited to Germany. It will be extended to all the belligerent countries, will spread from these to neutral lands, and, as a further consequence, will form the base of a new period in the history of woman.

The position of woman as to her public and private rights, as to her public and intellectual life, is closely bound up with her industrial position and activity. Woman's sphere of influence in the State and in society corresponds to her field of activity. Where woman's activity is

limited to the home and family, where she has no direct connection with the industrial life of the nation, there her legal and intellectual position is confined within narrow boundaries. Right here is verified Marx's declaration that society does not rest upon the law, but that the law rests upon society. Law is the legal expression of the actual social condition. Of course, like everything existing, it is ruled by the tendency to stand fast, and, consequently, it generally yields but hesitatingly, and often resistingly, to changes in conditions.

There is no question that the changes in the relation of women to industrial life that have taken place during the war have been extraordinarily great. Nevertheless, they would remain without any influence upon the legal and intellectual position of woman if they were merely of a transitory nature. Let us summarize the reasons that show that this cannot be the case:

1. The economic life of the belligerent countries needs the labor of women as a substitute for the men whom the war has taken from industrial life either through death or permanent injury.

2. The sharpened industrial competition to which Europe will see herself forced because of her loss of strength will necessarily develop—to the advantage of powerful industrial groups—a strong movement toward a lowering of the cost of production, which will be favored by woman's labor, as it is at present cheaper.

3. The disappearance of the fathers of families from industrial life through death or disability will compel a great many women to seek productive labor in order to increase their pension allowances from the public, so as to be able to maintain the family.

4. The diminished possibility of marriage will force more women than formerly to make themselves economically independent and enter industrial life for this purpose.

Quite aside from the question as to how greatly these conditions will affect matters, there is the problem of how this transformation is going to influence not only the legal and intellectual posi-

tion of woman, but also the entire economic and intellectual life of our people.

Up to the present there have been in Germany only weak currents of feminine opinion insisting upon a change in the present legal standing of women. One of these was composed of the most intellectually active women of the bourgeoisie, whose interest in public life had been aroused, but who lacked a field for its exercise. This current has often been called the "ladies' movement," with the intention of hinting in a deprecatory way that this was not so much an earnest effort for the attainment of equal rights as it was an interesting but harmless sport. The view thus expressed, however, was not quite fair. Even the women's movement of the bourgeoisie had its point of economic support in the circles under its influence. A growing number of women remained single and saw themselves forced by economic, and partly by psychological, reasons to take up a profession, which these women found as doctors, teachers, nurses, or as employees in commercial offices, or in the postal service, or in other lines.

In so far as the bourgeois woman's movement really was backed by numbers its adherents were recruited among these circles, and as a matter of course the leadership fell to the women who were the most fitted for it through education and liberty of movement. The second, and in numbers stronger, movement among the German women was that of the working women organized in the Socialist Party and the trade unions. This movement found support in masses that already amounted to some hundreds of thousands, but in comparison with the total numbers of the women of the working class its active followers were but few. * * *

Enough: It is beyond question that only through that direct participation by women in the economic life of the nation which is connected with economic independence is emphasis lent to the demand for broader rights, and that only then will the great mass of women take up this demand and earnestly support it. Consequently it is evident that an in-

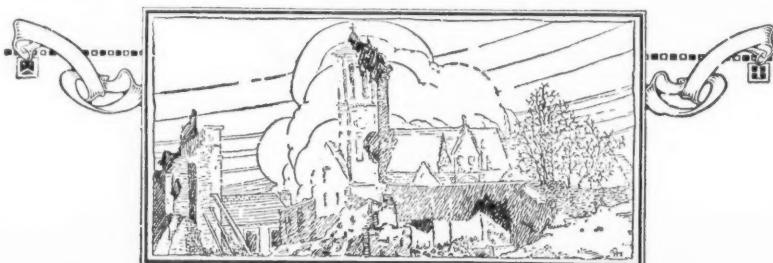
creasing participation by women in industrial labor will influence the legal position of woman in the sense of a broadening of her rights. This connection is due to the fact that the sphere of activity of woman in industry is closely related to the general conditions of the people's life. The wage-earning woman, first of all, has quite different economic interests from those of the housewife, whose activities are limited to the management of her home, the care of her family, and the rearing of her children. Of course the housewife also has economic interests, but between her and the basic economic conditions of life stands the man, to whom falls the main task of providing for the maintenance of life, and who is the first to have to contend with the handicaps and difficulties encountered in this work. Here in a certain sense the man forms a protecting shell for the woman and the family, keeping off the economic pressure from without, or at least lessening it. For this reason the contact of the housewife with the economic conditions of existence is less sharp. The case of the wage-earning woman is different. She lacks the protection of the man. She is entirely dependent upon herself. She senses her economic interests to a much greater degree and soon comes to the conclusion that she must take action herself if she wishes to better her conditions of labor.

Moreover, it is only a step from the field of economic interests to participation in politico-economic and purely political questions; this step, however, is very seldom taken deliberately, but simply forces itself upon the women's organizations. And the women's economic organizations will be something quite different in significance in the future. So long as the wage-earning

woman regards her industrial activity merely as a transition period to be followed by marriage she does not take the matter of defending her trade interests very seriously. Only the consciousness that her wage-earning labor forms the enduring base of her economic existence makes her receptive to the idea of a joint representation of interests through organization.

The basic principle—equal pay for equal work—has more than mere trade union significance. No matter what objections may be raised against it on the part of the employers it is indubitably justified when taken in connection with the nation's industrial and political life as a whole. But it can only be put into effect if woman is kept away from the kind of gainful labor in which she is not equal to man, therefore above all from work that makes especially heavy demands upon bone and muscle. The women in the mines, on railroad track and construction work, in foundries and rolling mills, &c., must remain a phenomenon of war that must end with the war. But even then limitless fields of activity are open to them. But one of the most necessary tasks of legislation is to define, after careful examination, which of the fields of industrial life shall be kept open to woman labor. For only thus may the unavoidable shocks to our economic machinery due to the entering of woman into the army of wage workers be materially lessened. * * *

The war has given the wheel of evolution a swift turn forward. The woman question has entered upon a new stage; its significance for the entire nation has grown mightily. The State and society must recognize the new nature of the woman question and come to an understanding with it.

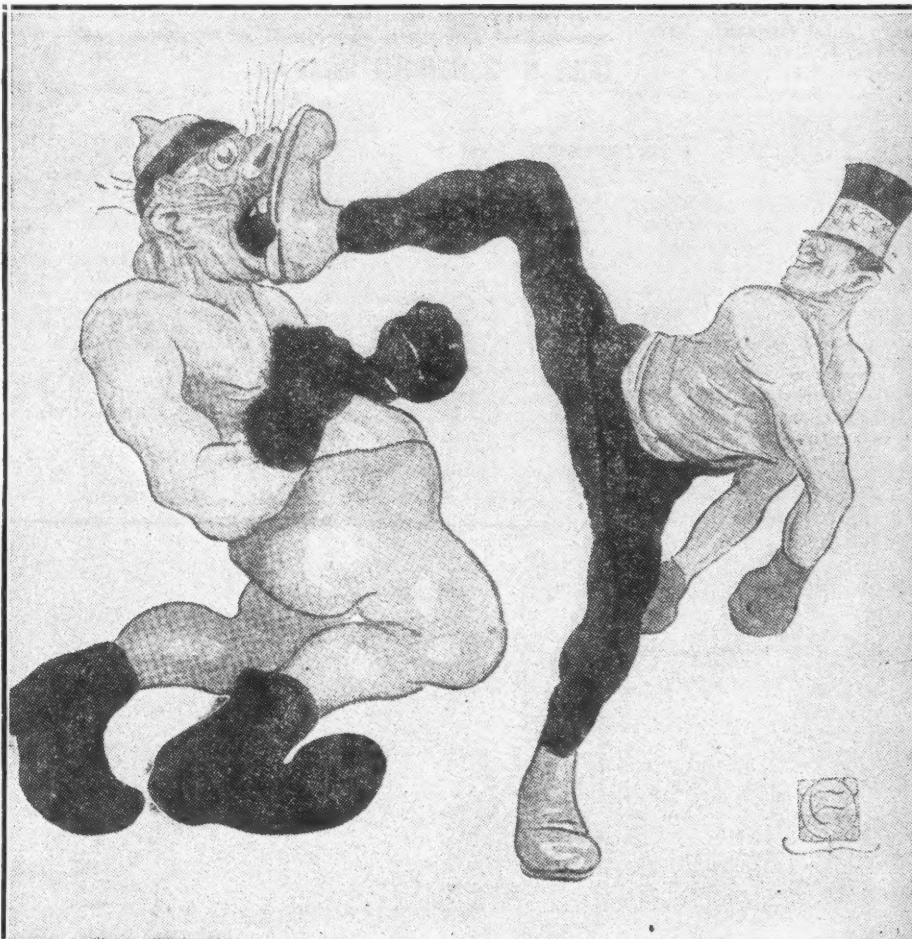


THE EUROPEAN WAR AS SEEN BY CARTOONISTS

NOTE.—Owing to the existing blockade of Germany, CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE has been unable to obtain German cartoons for this issue.

[Italian Cartoon]

An International Match



—From *Il 40, Florence.*

It began as boxing—and ends as football!

[Dutch Cartoons]

The Arm of the Law Deep Sea Philosophy



—From *De Notenkraker*, Amsterdam.

“Donnerwetter! Caught, and I knew the bait was illegal!”



—From *De Notenkraker*, Amsterdam.

“Father Neptune, what do they mean by ‘freedom of the seas’?”

“They mean, my dear, that they must be free to send what they choose to the bottom.”

[English Cartoon]

Holland's Plight



—From *The National News, London.*

“Between the devil and the deep sea.”

[American Cartoon]

His Easter Egg



—From *The New York Times*.

Slow in hatching, but a healthy bird.

[Italian Cartoon]

The New Costume



—From *L'Asino*, Rome.

PRESIDENT WILSON: "And now—cut off my wings!"

[English Cartoon]

The Leper



—From *Passing Show, London.*

Shunned by all the world.

[Spanish Cartoon]

A Sudden Fear



—From *Campana de Gracia, Barcelona.*

“Where is the good old ‘Gott’ I have called on always? Where is He? Have I slain Him also in error?”

[German-Swiss Cartoon]

The American Crocodile



—From *Nebelspalter*, Zurich.

"My good rider gives me such good fodder that I like to please him. Therefore I howl about the Belgian deportations."

[German Cartoon]

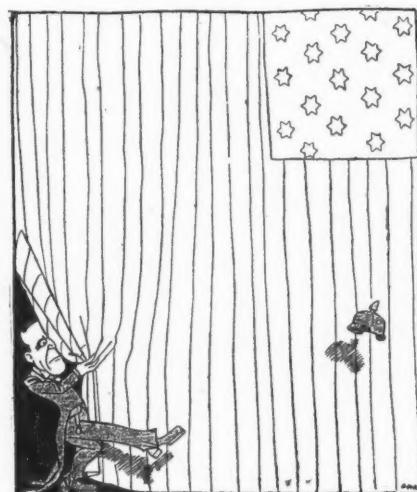
French Losses



"While England does the shouting, France loses the teeth."

[Spanish Cartoon]

Better Late Than Never



—From *Iberia*, Barcelona.
President Wilson's final reply to Germany's submarine policy.

[Austrian Cartoon]
Besieging John Bull



*—From *Die Muskete*, Vienna.*
The U-Maidens at Dover.

[Dutch Cartoon]

The Woe of the World



—From *De Notenkraker*, Amsterdam.

The militarist sees all the thin and puny hands of the starving peoples shape themselves into one mighty fist.

[English Cartoon]

The Harmony Three

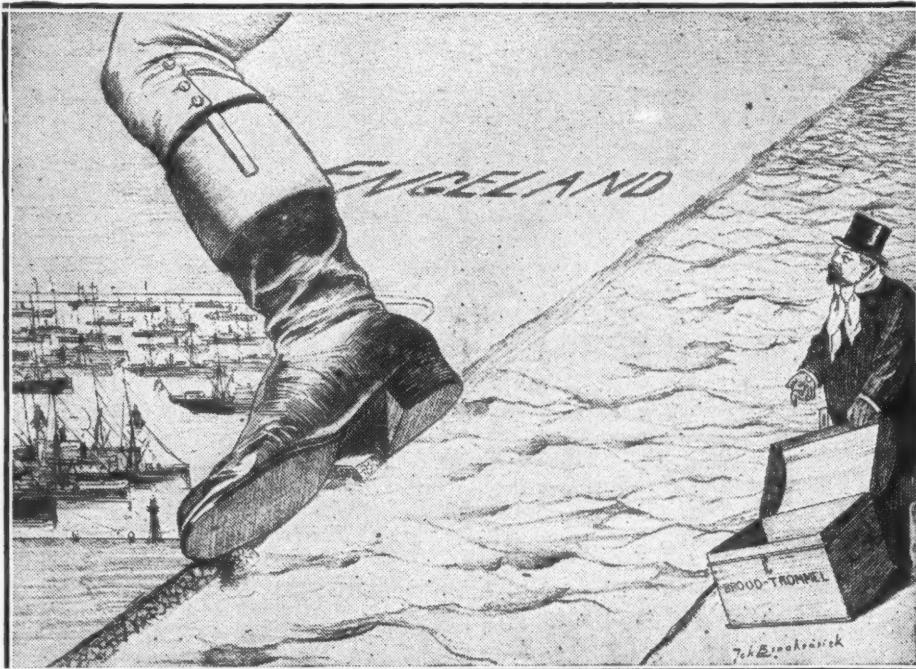


—From *The Evening News, London.*

A song of the German-Mexican-Japanese plan of alliance.

[Dutch Cartoon]

England Holds Up Dutch Shipping



—From *De Amsterdammer*, Amsterdam.
The Dutch Minister shows the empty bread basket.

[German-Swiss Cartoon]

The American Prestidigitateur



—From *Nebelspalter*, Zurich.

"All without apparatus or double bottoms. See, ladies and gentlemen, one, two, three—the dove is a cannon!"

[Italian Cartoon]
The Pirate Emperor



—From *Il 420*, Florence.
KAISER: "Behold! I am Emperor of the seas! The submarine is my throne!"

DEATH: "I think you will find it your coffin."

[American Cartoons]

"You Lose"



—From *The Cleveland Plain Dealer*.

As It Looks to Poor Holland



—From *The Grand Forks Herald*.

More "Clever Strategy"



—From *The St. Louis Post-Dispatch*.

[Italian Cartoon]

The Strange Position of Holland



—From *Il Numero*, Turin.

Germany still creeping through for supplies

[Spanish Cartoon]

The Neutral

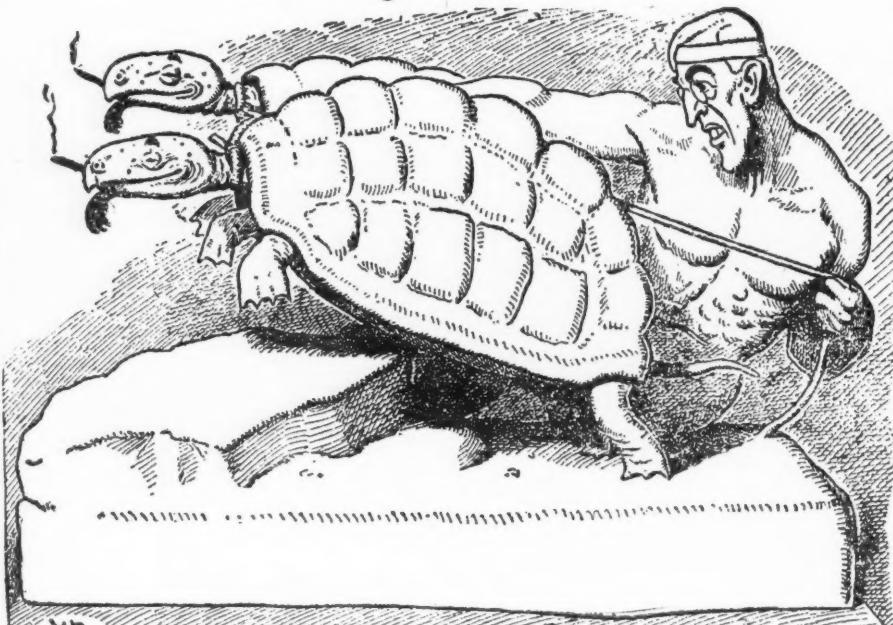


—From *Esquella, Barcelona.*

Playing a fandango while fellow-citizens perish.

[English Cartoons]

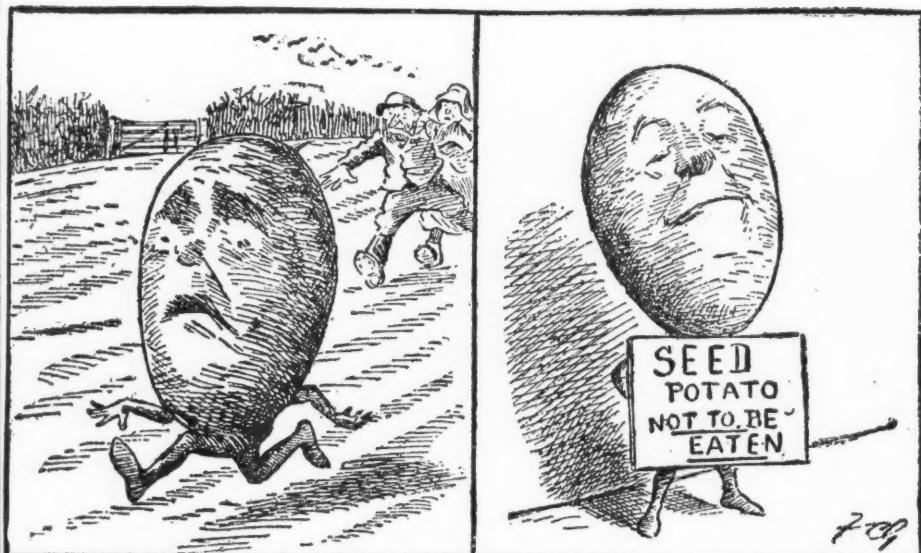
Straining at the Leash



—From *The Pall Mall Gazette*.

The dogs of war, United States of America.
[Published about the time of the Senate filibuster]

A Potato Drama

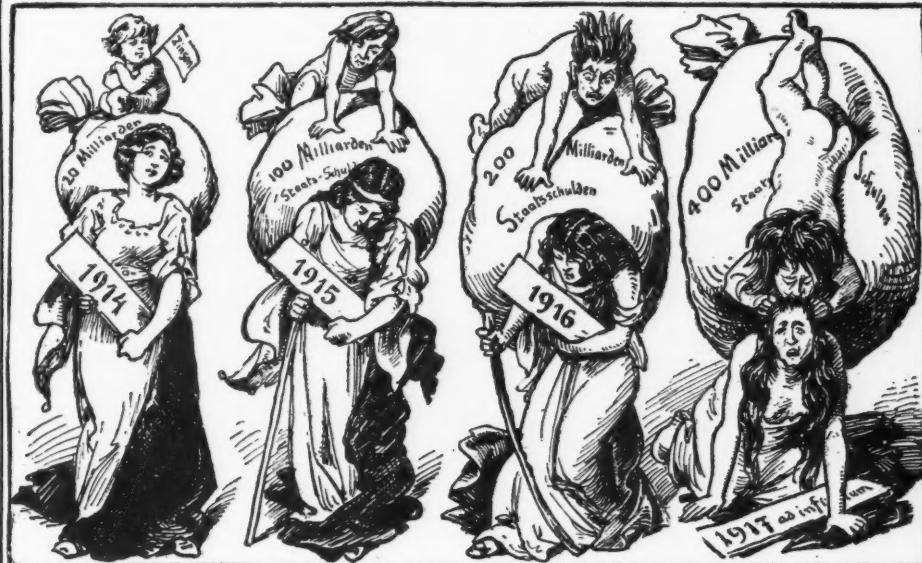


Despair.
The Last Potato.

—From *The Westminster Gazette*.
Safety.
Ha, ha! I am a Seed Potato!

[German-Swiss Cartoon]

Europe's Progress Toward Bankruptcy



—From *Nebelspalter, Zurich.*

The load is the debt and the imp is the interest. The load has grown from \$4,000,000,000 to \$80,000,000,000.

[American Cartoon]
In Freedom's Name



—From *The Baltimore American.*
Helping to roll away the stone.

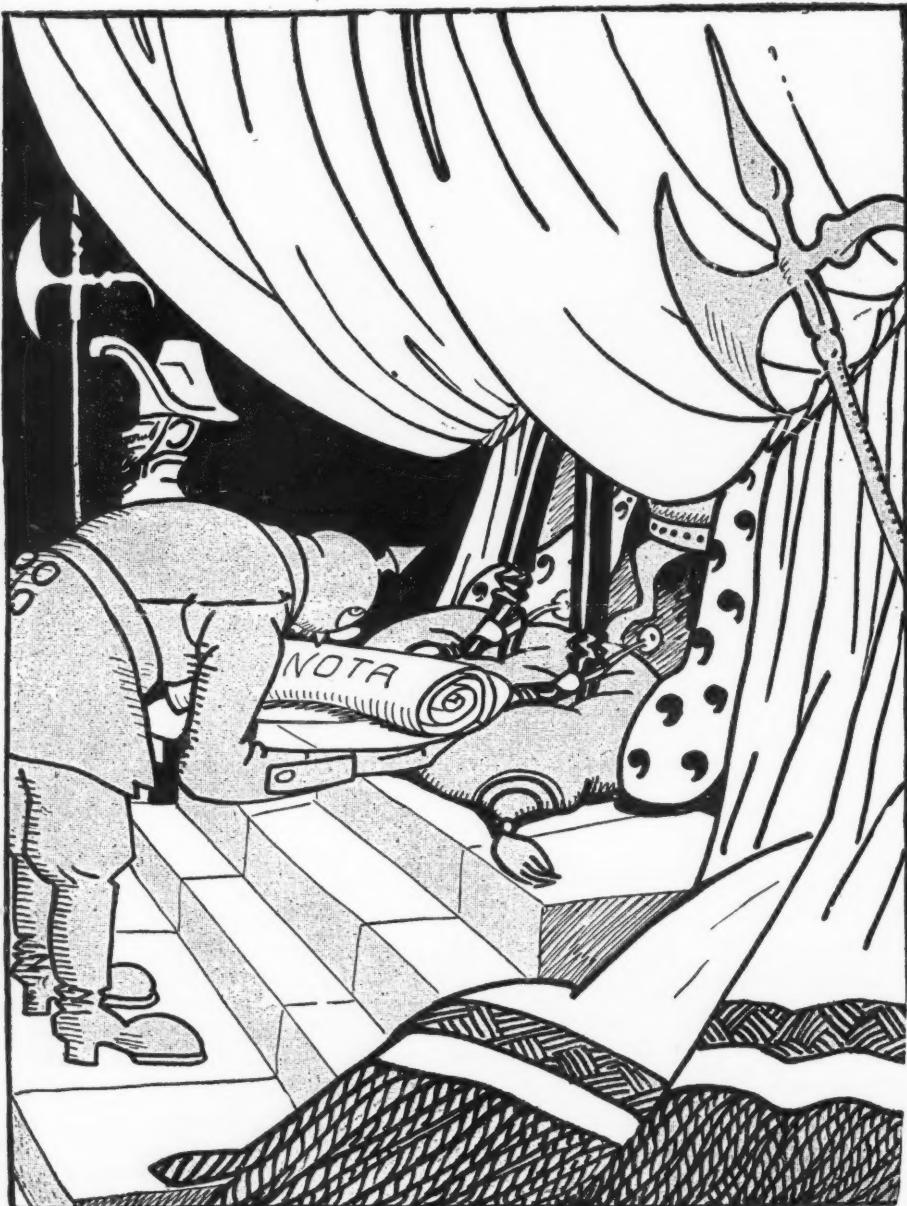
[American Cartoon]
Into the Light



—From *The Providence Journal.*
The War's Greatest Work.

[Spanish Cartoon]

The Recompense

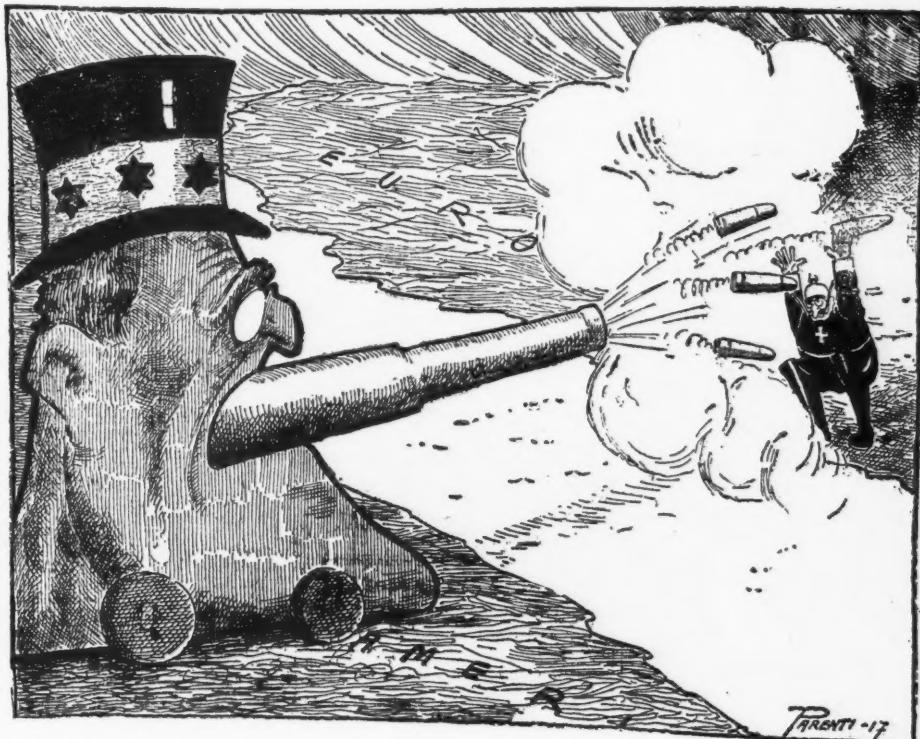


—From Campana de Gracia, Barcelona.

GERMANY: "In return for the kindness shown by you to my people I reward you with this note in regard to my unlimited submarine campaign."

[Italian Cartoon]

America's Latest Reply

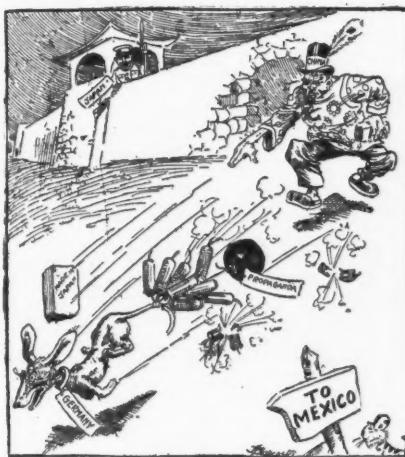


—From Ill 420, Florence.

THE KAISER: "Donnerwetter! This is a new kind of American note!"

[American Cartoon]

More Trouble for Germany



—From The Portland Oregonian.

Now China's kicking the Kaiser's dog around.

[American Cartoon]

The Pariah



—From The New York Evening Post.
"What has become of my friends?"

[German-Swiss Cartoon]

Intensive Submarine Warfare



—From Nebelspalter, Zurich.

NEPTUNE: "You can only put a good face on a bad position, John."

Financial Aspects of the War

THE copper producers of the United States, as an act of patriotism, have agreed to cut in half the price of copper for American Army and Navy uses for a period of one year, so as to enable the Government to pursue its military preparedness projects without being charged war profits. Twenty million pounds of copper are to be furnished to the navy during the coming year at the rate of approximately 16 2-3 cents a pound. During the same period 25,510,000 pounds of copper are to be furnished to the army at the same price. The price at which copper is to be furnished, 16.6739 cents a pound, is the average selling price during the last ten years, whereas the market price at this time is twice that sum.

The total amount of copper for army and navy would cost at the market price \$17,293,800; at the reduced price the cost will be \$7,585,000.

IN the eight months ending with February, 1917, the United States sent \$2,196,000 merchandise to Germany, as against \$283,000 in the same months a year before; but imported from Germany only \$1,512,000, as against \$11,224,000. Our declared trade with Austria was \$205,000 for the eight months, as against \$1,286,000 a year before. In the corresponding period of the fiscal year 1914 our combined outward and inward trade with Germany was \$389,357,000; with Austria, \$29,968,000.

A COMPARISON of steel prices on April 1, 1917, for three years shows that the average for finished products was \$80.35 per ton, against \$52.95 in 1916 and \$28.45, the low point, in 1914.

THE Loree estimate of American securities held abroad Feb. 1, 1917, is \$1,185,811,486, par value, of American railway stocks and bonds. Two years ago—on Jan. 31, 1915—these holdings aggregated \$2,704,402,364; so that within the interval American investors had repurchased \$1,519,000,000 of them, or 56 per cent. In the six months between January and July, 1915, the amount held abroad was reduced by \$481,000,000;

from July, 1915, to July, 1916—no report having been issued in January, 1916—the reduction was \$808,000,000. Thus the average redemption in the three half periods ending with last July was \$429,000,000, whereas in the subsequent six months they amounted to only \$230,000,000. It is estimated that in addition about \$250,000,000 industrial stocks and bonds were held abroad on July 1.

THE bank clearings in the United States during the first week of the war were over \$5,750,000,000, an increase of 16.2 per cent. over the corresponding week last year. The railroads in the first two months of 1917 gained \$40,000,000 in earnings; our foreign trade in the first two months of 1917 was over \$1,500,000,000; balance in our favor, \$638,685,848; excess of gold imports in January and February over exports, \$23,762,413.

THE Swiss Bank Verein issued recently an estimate of the per cent. of increase of gold reserves and paper currency in the warring States in the thirty months ended Jan. 1, 1916, as follows:

	Gold. Increase.	Paper. Per Cent.
Great Britain.....	100.0	544.0
France	25.1	175.8
Italy	*26.3	144.6
Russia	104.0	420.0
Japan	53.0	40.7
Germany	93.0	350.3
Austria-Hungary	180.0
Total	57.0	208.0
*Decrease.		

Outstanding "currency notes" of England now amount to \$719,785,000, a decrease of \$30,000,000 below the maximum. Germany's banknote issues are \$2,041,000,000, as against \$475,000,000 when the war began; those of the Bank of France are \$3,690,000,000, against \$985,000,000; those of the Imperial Russian Bank, \$4,836,500,000, against \$817,000,000.

IN ninety-six articles the index number for prices by Bradstreet's was 8.7087 on Aug. 1, 1914, against 14.136 on April 1, 1917, a rise of 62½ per cent.; the increase in England is computed at 97%

THE NEW YORK TIMES CURRENT HISTORY

per cent.; prices in England are now 33 1-3 per cent. higher than during our civil war period.

THE following schedule from The London Economist shows the expenditures of Great Britain since the beginning of the war and the sources from which the funds have been derived:

AUG. 1, 1914, TO MARCH 31, 1915	
Total spent	£408,359,980
Increase in Exchequer balances	78,390,504
Total	£576,750,544
Raised by revenue	£171,758,744
Net borrowings	404,091,800
Total	£576,750,544
FINANCIAL YEAR 1915-16	
Total spent	£1,550,158,377
Decrease in Exchequer balances	57,875,940
Total	£1,501,282,431
Raised by revenue	£330,700,824
Net borrowings	1,104,515,607
Total	£1,501,282,431
PRESENT FINANCIAL YEAR (1916-17) TO DATE—APRIL 1 TO MARCH 10, 1917	
Total spent	£1,087,073,417
Increase in Exchequer balances	54,000,147
Total	£2,041,142,564
Raised by revenue	£513,333,446
Net borrowings	1,527,800,118
Total	£2,041,142,564
GRAND TOTAL—AUG. 1, 1914, TO MARCH 10, 1917	
Total spent	£4,044,501,774
Increase in Exchequer balances	74,583,705
Grand total since beg. of war. £4,119,175,530	
Raised by revenue	£1,021,850,014
Net borrowings	3,097,310,525
Total	£4,119,175,530

The expenditure includes loans to allies and dominions, which are estimated to amount to £13,000,000 on March 31 next.

Just a little short of one-quarter of the total, it will be seen, was obtained by taxation, the balance being obtained by loans.

COTTON rose to 21 1/4 at New York April 9, as against 13.9 Feb. 3, when diplomatic relations with Germany were broken off.

EXCHANGE rates with England, France, and Italy rose after the declaration of war with Germany. On April 10 sterling reached 4.76, a rise of 1/2 point in a week. Francs rose 16 points in a week, lire 52 points, Swiss francs 3 1/2 points, rubles 60 points; marks and kronen are no longer quoted.

IN the six months from January to June, 1916, deposits in savings banks in Russia aggregated in currency and securities 968,000,000 rubles, against 437,000,000 in 1915.

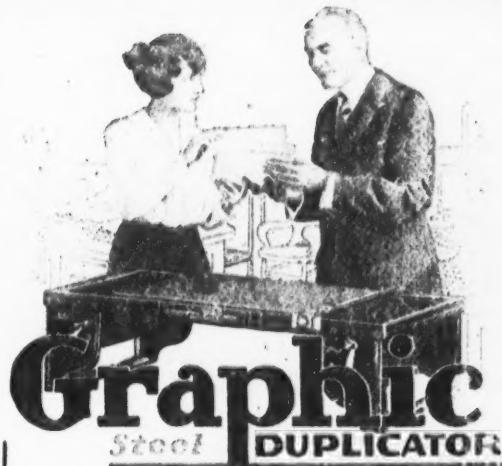
IN February, 1917, the United States imported from Germany goods to the value of \$49,215; there were no exports; in February, 1916, our exports to Germany were \$10,452 and imports \$819,176.

FOR the period of the war, England has raised about 25 per cent. of her war costs out of taxation. From Aug. 1, 1914, to March 31, 1915, \$858,000,000 was raised by taxation and \$2,025,000,000 by bonds and other forms of borrowing. From then until March 31, 1916, \$1,685,000,000 was raised by taxation and \$5,820,000,000 by borrowing. From then until March 31, 1917, \$2,475,000,000 was raised by taxation and \$7,310,000,000 by borrowing. For the entire period of war England has thus raised \$5,010,000,000 by taxation and \$15,160,000,000 by borrowing.

THE year ended April 1, 1917, yielded to Great Britain \$350,000,000 more revenue than the budget estimate.

DURING February, 1917, after the unrestricted submarine warfare was resumed, our trade with England decreased \$25,200,000 and increased \$31,000,000 with France.

ENGLAND'S total loans to her allies up to April 1, 1917, reached the sum of \$4,450,000,000.



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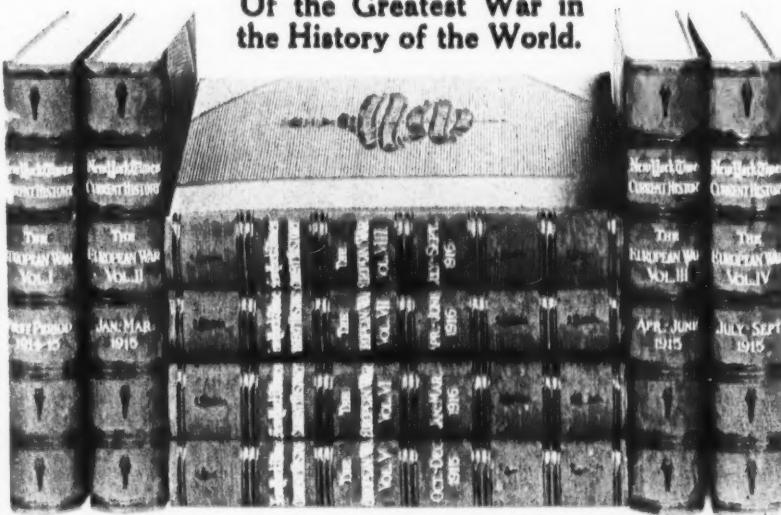
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Sworn to and subscribed before me this second day of April, 1917.

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R. L. ALSAKER, M. D.

Does Red Meat Cause Rheumatism?

By R. L.
Alsaker, M.D.

Dear Doctor Alsaker: I am 48 years old. Have hardly had a sick day in my life, except the usual diseases of childhood and an occasional cold in the fall or spring, when most people seem to catch cold. For the past three years I have had occasional pains in the shoulder, the knee joints, and in the little finger of the left hand.

My doctor tells me that I have rheumatism and that I must stop eating meat—especially red meat—beef, lamb, etc. I eat very little meat. My breakfast consists of bacon and eggs or one mutton chop, rolls and occasionally wheat cakes (never more than three), or toast and a cup of coffee. And I eat a little fruit and oatmeal with cream and sugar. For lunch a couple of soft boiled eggs and a piece of pie or cake and a glass of milk. Sometimes I take Boston baked beans instead of eggs and tea instead of milk. For dinner we have soup, a roast of some kind, or broiled or baked fish, with potatoes and other vegetables, and occasionally a salad, but I don't care much for raw food, and always a dessert—ice cream, stewed fruit, pie or cake—and after dinner coffee. I will confess to an occasional cocktail before dinner, but I seldom drink between meals—not even water. I usually smoke a cigar after lunch and always after dinner.

If red meat causes rheumatism, why should I have it and the other members of the family, who eat meat as frequently as I do, be free?

W. J. L.

THIS gentleman seems to think that he has been quite well, though he and real health have not been on speaking terms for some years. Those who are well do not have colds. Colds are a warning, a danger signal, showing that the body is full of impurities and waste.

Pains that travel from joint to joint, usually called rheumatic pains, are another sign that the blood is charged with impurities.

This gentleman seems to think that he has been prudent about his eating, when in fact he has been careless. At 48 everybody owes it to himself and family to know how to eat so as to have health. Eggs, meat, fish and milk are proteids (albuminous foods). The body needs a limited amount of these foods, but if they are taken in excess, as they are when eaten at every meal, they build rheumatism, catarrh, bronchitis, asthma, colds, Bright's disease and other ills.

No comment is needed regarding smoking and liquor.

Why does not every member in this family have rheumatism? Because individuals differ, and what will express itself as rheumatism in one may take the form of a different disease in another individual. I do not know this family, but without knowing them, I am sure that there is not a healthy member in the household. Each and every one who lives in this manner must from time to time have some kind of physical trouble.

Red meat does not in itself cause rheumatism, though overeating of meat often helps to build the trouble. I have to fall back on experience and say that I have had numerous cases of rheumatism of all kinds—gout, lumbago, muscular rheumatism, rheumatism of the joints, chronic and acute—and every case, without exception, has recovered, and it has never taken longer than four months. Many of these patients had had rheumatism from ten to thirty years, during which time they had consumed vast quantities of drugs and had gone to springs and had been built out, without special benefit.

In only one case was meat taken away temporarily, yet all the rest recovered, so red meat does not cause rheumatism.

These sufferers recovered through proper living, especially through correct eating. If this gentleman will eat and drink as he should, he will recover, as all the rest did. There are no *ifs* and *but*s about it—he will get well and stay well. What is more, right eat-

ing will make his whole family well. And they won't need any drugs or operations. It is natural to be well, and those who follow Nature's laws will always have health. Proper eating is the most important, in fact the dominating, health factor. Everyone who has rheumatism can eat his way out of it and into health. No one need be sick. Mother Nature has given us hundreds of good things to eat, and you can eat every one of them and enjoy good health and long life—if you eat them right.

Realizing the universal need of clearly defined instruction on the important subject of Eating, I have published in book form a complete and practical home study course on regaining and maintaining health.

This course is unique, in the true sense of the word. It is entirely free from fads. There is no attempt to exploit anything in it—except the truth. It simply tells in a straightforward way how to prepare, combine and eat the foods which are within the reach of everybody—city or country, rich or poor, meat eater or vegetarian, young or old, so as to produce perfect health. There is no tiresome use of so-called scientific words, such as calories and vitamines, in the work.

There are explicit directions for the pregnant woman, the nursing mother, the infant, the child, the youth, the adult, and the aged. It shows the well how to eat to remain well, and gives instructions for feeding the sick so that they will soon recover. It tells you how to get thin and how to gain weight and keep well.

It is impossible to give a comprehensive description of this practical home study course in health building in this short article. For that reason I have arranged with my publisher, Frank E. Morrison, 1133 Broadway, New York City, to send to any reader of Current History who will request it, a 48-page reprint taken from my home study course "EATING FOR HEALTH AND EFFICIENCY," absolutely free. These pages embody information and instruction of great value to any person wanting or in need of advice concerning the importance of proper eating. They will enable you to determine in your own home whether the complete work is needed by you or the family. An acceptance of this offer places you under no obligation to my publisher or myself. It does afford you an opportunity to learn how to get health instruction for the mere price of a postage stamp or postal card—better ask for it NOW.

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